

## THE CLEARING HOUSE

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# Junior-High Curriculum

75 administrators contribute to  
*Clearing House* questionnaire

## REVISION

By LAURA TERRY TYLER

THE principal of a school sometimes has little voice in planning the curriculum that he must administer and supervise. Frequently he must assume the responsibility of doing the best that he can with that which is delegated to him to do.

Into seemingly unworkable patterns, the head of the school, if he is in step with the junior-high-school objectives, must weave something of his own ideas and ideals. Whether or not these ideals may gain momentum enough to cause favorable comment and action may depend largely upon the zeal with which the administrator goes to work. Any attempt to turn from the beaten track of traditional approach is apt to become difficult. However, there will be

ideals, and if enough of them are expressed, they may have weight.

Having in mind the benefits that might be derived from a knowledge of what men and women who have the direction of large numbers of boys and girls might like to see accomplished in a junior-high-school curriculum reconstruction program, THE CLEARING HOUSE asked certain of them the following questions:

1. What are some of the characteristics which you believe the curriculum of the junior high school should possess?
2. What subjects would you like to see dropped from the junior-high-school curriculum?
3. What subjects would you like to see added to the junior-high-school curriculum?
4. What emphasis do you think the socializing-integrative (homeroom, clubs, forum, etc.) activities should receive in comparison with the so-called core-curriculum subjects?
5. Do you think that credit should be allowed for the socializing-integrative activities toward the completion of junior-high-school work?
6. What do you consider the best type of curriculum for the average junior high school?

These inquiries were made of the principals of certain well-established junior high schools in various parts of the United States.

EDITOR'S NOTE: THE CLEARING HOUSE publishes, in its last issue of the current school year, this contribution to junior-high thought, based on the results of a questionnaire, "How Shall We Revise the Junior-High-School Curriculum?" Doctor Tyler, who writes this article based on the questionnaire, is a teacher of social studies in the Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Yonkers, New York. The summaries of opinions, and the excerpts quoted from significant statements, are based upon replies from the administrators of representative junior high schools in all parts of the country.

The responses were quite illuminating.

*Characteristics that a junior-high-school curriculum should possess:*

Seventy-five administrators answered the question on the characteristics that the junior-high-school curriculum should possess. Forty-nine respondents, 65.3 per cent of the total number, believe that flexibility is the most desirable feature in a curriculum.

Many statements were made qualifying the viewpoints of those offering information. It seemed the consensus of opinion that the curriculum should be amenable to change and that the times through which we are passing make frequent additions and subtractions necessary. These changes possibly should be made without destroying the whole structure. Adaptability to child needs and experiences is closely allied to flexibility, and it follows that a large percentage of educators considered adaptability an asset in any revision program.

There was rather a sharp difference of opinion as to whether or not the curriculum should embody the most advanced educational thought.

Those who favored this characteristic were emphatic in their statements. On the other hand, there were those who believed that advanced educational thought borders on radicalism, upon which revision exponents should frown. Several administrators were afraid that advanced educational thought meant that college theorists would fly away from the ground in curriculum building—and that upon the ground our feet should stay firmly fixed.

Twenty-one administrators plead for the integration of subjects and the breaking down of subject barrier-lines. Other characteristics considered favorably by a majority of principals were a wide range of exploratory courses, greater emphasis on socialization throughout all junior-high-school grades, greater training through socialized courses, great emphasis on formal guidance, breadth, richness, and appreciation in all subject fields, and broad fields of experi-

ences for all rather than differentiation.

Other characteristics follow, and each seems to be entitled to a place in the planning of the curriculum with possibly one exception. Only one administrator expressed the view that fundamentals, particularly English and mathematics, should be stressed. So many spoke against the inclusion of mathematics as a required subject above the seventh grade that it does not seem feasible to agree that the stressing of the subject is important.

It is interesting to note that many of those who sent data concerning what they hoped would be considered in future curriculum building for the junior-high-school level have been able to put their theories into practice in the schools they are directing.

Others affirm that they can neither endorse nor accept any program patterned along lines that may be considered traditional or as preparatory to senior-high-school work. They feel that the junior high school should be an entity.

*Comments by junior-high-school administrators:*

The comments that follow are offered because of their revealing character. Names are given only when permission has been granted.

John S. Herron, Principal of the Robert Treat Junior High School, Newark, New Jersey, writes:

One of the vital problems in junior high schools in crowded industrial areas is the question of how properly to provide suitable curriculums for a large number of borderline boys and girls who show very little interest in academic subjects.

Most of these students are retarded from one to three years, and apparently our schools offer very little to stimulate their growth and development. Our vocational schools have long waiting lists and naturally select the better students, with the consequent result that this army of dull, normal students is not being properly provided for. Both the junior and senior high schools must find a way to enable these children to have such experiences as will help them to a proper vocational decision.

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could profitably set up a new curriculum based upon specific guidance objectives. That is to say, we could offer certain try-out courses, the object being to help individual students toward growth along the lines of their dominant interest. Such a curriculum might be named pre-vocational or even vocational.

From Malcolm Robertson, Principal of the Alfred Vail Junior High School, Morristown, New Jersey, comes this statement:

Sympathy for, and understanding of, adolescence must be a characteristic of the makers. The curriculum must be of the type that presents opportunities for the best all-round development of the individual personality. The curriculum should be more practical than it is today—much of present living must replace useless tradition.

Edward R. Maguire, Principal of Herman Ridder Junior High School, New York City, tells us:

I modify my curriculum to fit my neighborhood needs to a certain extent. No matter what our curriculums may be, I consider their content as secondary to their value as meat upon which to chew and as material for the growth of personality. I am seeking integration and socialization. . . . I cannot get myself excited over curriculums as such.

The principal of Lincoln Junior High School, Jamestown, New York, H. L. Gillis, says:

The curriculum of a junior high school should contain in the seventh grade chiefly the things that should be the common knowledge of all citizens: English, Mathematics, Social Science, and General Science. In the eighth and ninth years these should diminish in quantity and a correspondingly increasing amount of material which will open up new fields to the pupil should be offered in their place.

A considerable amount of choice should be allowed in the ninth year. Try-out courses should touch upon a large number of fields, with a special emphasis on the courses training particularly for good citizenship. More emphasis should be placed upon the social sciences. There should be more attention given to extensive reading and oral composition in English.

Robert L. Dawson, Principal of Knox Junior High School, Johnstown, New York, answers our query:

The curriculum should possess, above all things, adaptability to the social, civic, physical and educational needs of all of its students: from the socially

underprivileged to the socially privileged; from the physically handicapped to the physically well; from the mentally slow to the mentally rapid. It must be a school for *all* the children of *all* the people.

A. J. Nicely, Principal of the Wilson Junior High School, Erie, Pennsylvania, offers three suggestions concerning the junior high school and its curriculum:

1. Let it be a junior high school with junior-high-school curriculums.
2. Let it be free from the domination of senior-high-school curriculums.
3. Let it have more courses which will fit the abilities of many junior-high-school students in citizenship training.

From another principal of a Pennsylvania junior high school comes this interesting comment:

A curriculum should be revised about every five years. It should embody the most advanced educational thought but should not be changed just for the sake of change.

I have been admitted to candidacy for a Ph.D. in Education, but I feel that many of our educational leaders like to hear "words roll off their tongues." Teachers who can talk for hours on articulation, integration, et cetera, cannot tell one what they are trying to teach. We need to define our goals or objectives in practical terms.

Lawrence S. Brink, Principal of the Monticello Junior High School, Cleveland Heights, Ohio, states the characteristics of an ideal junior-high-school curriculum in terms of its purposes:

1. Exploration of pupils' capacities and interests.
2. Opportunity for practice of social relationships.
3. Consolidation of the mastery of the tools of study.
4. Development of the spiritual, emotional, and imaginative capacities of the individual.
5. Survey of the social and physical environment.

Mr. Brink further states that the purposes of the curriculum as he has stated them are those to be emphasized in the junior high school and are not inclusive of all the objectives of education.

Vida V. Smith, Principal of the Central Junior High School in Madison, Wisconsin, pleads for more general courses in the junior high school, as follows:

The courses in a junior-high-school curriculum should be general rather than broken up into various classifications. There should be General Science, General Mathematics, General Course in Social Science, and an extensive reading course in connection with English. We need closer integration of all courses on the junior-high-school level and should leave specialization for later years.

The principal of a Sheboygan, Wisconsin, junior high school says that the curriculum of the junior high school may well place added emphasis upon pupil behavior in place of subject mastery.

James A. Fitzgerald, Principal of Troup Junior High School, New Haven, Connecticut, says:

Whatever the curriculum, I like to see it applied in the classrooms with a child-minded attitude. To be thus applied it must keep pace with new ideas, and be subject to trial and experiment and to modification.

In expressing the opinion that the junior-high-school curriculum should express the embodiment of the most advanced educational thought, the principal of another New England junior high school adds that there must be a faculty of young teachers, or of experienced teachers who are willing to accept the junior-high-school philosophy.

Still another New England administrator admonishes against veering too far from the senior-high-school set-up or pupils will find it too difficult to fit in the high school which is very traditional. Yet he tells us hopefully that some things have changed in the senior high schools within the last three years, but that there have not been changes enough to give the junior high schools all the latitude they should have.

The principal of the Ventura Union Junior High School, Ventura, California, M. E. Mushlitz, says that the curriculum should be an activity course in learning. He further adds that in his school it is believed that education is life—not merely a preparation for life. The writer believes, from a study of materials received, that the school mentioned above has gone a long way on the road toward an integrated curriculum.

W. E. Moreland, Principal of Albert Sidney Johnston Junior High School, Houston, Texas, thinks something ought to be done about attaining the objectives of the junior high school:

A junior-high-school curriculum should possess the machinery for realizing the objectives set up for the junior high school. Tradition-bound organization, methods, customs, and points of view, result in retaining the traditional school under a new name. *We have adequate and sound objectives. Let us do something toward attaining them.*

From C. C. Ball, Principal of the Thomas Nelson Page Junior High School, San Antonio, Texas, comes a statement concerning credits:

I do not believe that junior-high-school progress should be mentioned in terms of credits. Junior-high-school education is a series of experiences through which a child passes and by which he develops. The curriculum should certainly be flexible and furnish rich experiences to all children according to their abilities and their individual backgrounds.

The quotations that have been given are but a few of the expressions found in the data, but they are typical of the thought of many of those most intimately acquainted with the junior-high-school organization.

The inquiry as to the subjects that the administrators would like to see dropped from the curriculum and the subjects that they would like to see added brought varied responses.

Twenty-five principals answered the two questions. Fourteen of them said that algebra was so out-of-date that it had no place in the curriculum of the junior high school. Seventeen answered that if algebra were to be taught it should never be a required subject. Fourteen principals said that formal mathematics should be dropped from the curriculum in seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

Twenty-one administrators favored dropping Latin from the curriculum. Nine considered that German should not be taught, and eight administrators thought that foreign languages should be taught only as ex-



ploratory courses and, if taught at all, they should be restricted to the ninth grade.

Other suggestions included the dropping of literature as a separate subject, and the dropping of spelling, history, geography, biology, commercial arithmetic, guidance, typing, and drafting. One principal said that if he thought any subjects should be dropped he would drop them immediately. The writer considers him more fortunate than many who have less control over the curriculum.

Regarding the subjects that the principals would like to add to the curriculum of their respective schools, the list proved so extended that it seems too cumbersome to reproduce here.

Certain subjects received much attention, and among these were dramatics, stagecraft, expression, speech, orientation, instrumental music of many types, vocal music, field courses in all grades, hand-craft courses, manners and conduct, exploratory courses in science, languages, and in industrial and practical arts, home-making of more practical types such as the care of small children and sex hygiene.

The subjects that the principals would like to see added far exceeded in number those they wanted to have dropped. The question then arises as to a serious overloading of the curriculum. Through the years of curriculum making there has been so much adding to, and so little taking away.

Those in charge of revision programs cling tenaciously to what is already in effect and keep on loading more subjects on the curriculum.

Fifty-two per cent of the principals reporting on the subject believe that as much credit should be given for the socializing-integrative activities as for the core-curriculum subjects, and that if completion of the junior-high-school work is judged on the basis of points, then these activities should be rated as curricular courses.

Twenty per cent of the respondents re-

plied that less credit should be given for the socializing-integrative activities than for regular subjects. Twenty-eight per cent of those answering the inquiry stated frankly that the public must be cognizant of the true value of such activities before proper rating or credits could be assigned.

*Types of curriculums most suited to the purposes of the junior high school.*

The administrators evinced much interest in the types of curriculums which they believe should be in effect in junior high schools throughout the country. Seventy-three principals answered this part of our inquiry, and sixty-three of them consider the constants-with-variables type most suitable for the adolescent school.

Five principals believe that grades eight and nine should have the multiple-curriculum. One of the five stated that the seventh grade should have the single curriculum under all circumstances, and that seventh-grade pupils should never be allowed a choice of electives. Two answers were in favor of a general curriculum, and one principal thought that all courses should be integrated and the curriculum called an integrated curriculum.

Attention is directed to the fact that one administrator, the principal of one of the best-known and most widely visited schools in the eastern part of the country, says that there should be no so-called curriculum and that all curriculums are out-moded.

In reviewing the opinions voiced by the administrators of representative junior high schools in various geographical areas of the United States, it may be conceded that these educators are keenly alive to the important changes which have occurred in society and which make curriculum revision necessary. Out of such expressions of opinions and out of so much curriculum reorganization, it would seem, there must come measures that will result in equipping adolescent boys and girls with an appreciation of their social environment and its obligations.

# SUBJECT GROUPINGS

## *in the* HIGH SCHOOL

By  
FORREST E. LONG

THOSE who are familiar with the history of secondary education know that certain procedures became the standard largely through accident. Even the length of the school term never lent itself to scientific evaluation—but we did settle down to a more or less conventional or standard plan.

In spite of our reluctance to accept new ways we hear the rumblings that indicate that all is not well. No one today knows just what the outcome will be and certainly no one knows the extent to which the pattern of the secondary school will be altered. The most persistent of all demands seems to be for a new alignment of subjects. Some have thought of this in terms of correlation; others have designated it fusion; others still have insisted upon integration; and now we hear it called orchestration. In brief, there is a demand that secondary schools offer a program which will make possible the application of most of the knowledge and skills gained in the classroom.

One would have to possess supernatural powers to be able to say how this demand

will be met. Twenty years ago we began a type of integration, especially in the junior high school, by organizing general courses, such as general science, general mathematics, social studies, and general home economics. The present emphasis on integration in the high school seems to be founded on the same idea. Whether integration, as we know it now, will become the accepted model remains for the future to determine. Some other plan may prove to be more advantageous. However the simple addition of specific courses has not solved the problem.

We were offering instruction in nine major subjects in the high schools of 1890. Today we are offering two-hundred-fifty different courses. By adding courses we have attempted to provide more adequately for the needs of more heterogeneous groups of students.

In 1890 there were only four per cent of the pupils of secondary-school age actually in school, while in 1937 this percentage has increased to seventy-five. Four per cent in 1890, seventy-five per cent actually enrolled in 1937! Some have maintained that we have reached the peak in attendance, but the evidence is not all in on this point. The movement for the restriction of child labor is too persistent to be dismissed readily. As a concomitant of the increased restriction of child labor we may expect more of the remaining twenty-five per cent to enter.

However, the additional twenty-five per cent, should all of them enter, will merely duplicate many of the problems that we have today. It can scarcely create any new

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *During the school year now about to end, THE CLEARING HOUSE has published a great many articles that brought the basic problems facing the secondary school to a sharp focus, analyzed them, and advocated solutions. In this article the Editor of THE CLEARING HOUSE discusses the need for breaking down subject-matter barriers, and overcoming the obstacles to integration. C.M.W.*

ones, for the secondary-school population today is largely representative of the entire range of the potential population.

We should face facts and make our plans so that we may provide for all pupils of secondary-school age. You may not wish to do so, or you may feel that such a demand is an impossible one to meet—but such is the situation. Even with the two-hundred-fifty courses which are now offered in American high schools we are not prepared to provide the experiences that these millions of high-school pupils should have.

Since the days of the Herbartians, the idea of correlation has been most persistent. They pointed out to us that subject matter learned in isolation was subject matter of no possible use. Following the insistence of the Herbartians we entered a period of emphasis on the project method. But even the project method became formalized in the hands of many teachers. Furthermore, the colleges—especially the college boards—placed steady and persistent pressure on the high schools to offer courses that were informational and formal in character. Facts to be mastered were set up as high-school courses of study, and pupils were expected to master these facts or drop out.

But an equally steady and persistent pressure has been put on the high school by the pupils who are attending, and their parents. And since these patrons have become more and more vocal the school has been forced to give way. A concession was made in one direction after another until the school today is a rather sorry spectacle. The form has remained that of the 1890's, but the content has become a sad mixture of severe selectivity and frivolous pantomime.

What shall we do in such an emergency?

1. We can attempt to make the secondary school selective and admit only those who are qualified to do formal academic work. Fortunately or unfortunately, we do not have the power to make any such decision as this. The American people have decided that there is no better place for a boy or girl

up to the age of eighteen than a good high school. The population at large may not know what kind of program we should offer, but they are convinced that we should offer something for each pupil.

2. We may increase the number and variety of courses and thus provide something for each pupil. But the budget must not be increased. Miss Helen Halter has discovered in her study of taxpayers' associations<sup>1</sup> that we are building up resentment over our school expenditures. How much further we may go in this direction is a question—possibly the sky is the limit, but surely there must be a saturation point.

3. We can charge a tuition fee for all those except the most worthy. This idea must be abandoned at once. Americans have grown accustomed to free public education. They are in no mood to accept anything else.

4. We may individualize instruction. This offers at least one solution. Let us consider its possibilities.

Just how this individualization may be accomplished no one is prepared to say. And if the offering is to be individualized we must accept the fact that the entire pattern of the school must be changed. We can no longer teach courses as such—we can only teach pupils by means of courses and experiences. We can no longer assume that two pupils, completing a unit of work, have gained the same benefits.

Even though we may agree that learning is an individual matter and that our curriculums should be set up in such a way as to provide for individualized experiences, we still have the problem of determining the technique that should be followed. I need not indicate the many plans that have been suggested for individualizing instruction. I shall proceed at once to a consideration of the realignment of subject-matter emphasis.

There can be no question of the fact that

<sup>1</sup> *Taxpayers' Association*, New York University, an unpublished study.

information cannot be used in isolation. In the solution of almost any problem we recognize that it is necessary to cross over many subject-matter barriers. Of course, many pupils can do this. We recognize that many pupils have comparatively little difficulty in making such a use of the knowledge they have gained in many fields. But the fact remains that many pupils simply cannot make use of mastered facts when the facts were learned without reference to application. The obvious solution seems to be the adoption of a plan of instruction that will assure meaning to all learning situations. Shall we think of this as integration or fusion?

Probably the most significant pronouncement on this topic came from the Department of Secondary School Principals:

In the light of what this committee considers to be sound educational philosophy applicable to the problem of creating a desirable educational program in our American democracy and on the basis of what experimental psychology has contributed to knowledge of educational methods and procedures, this committee does not believe that a curriculum utilizing conventional subjects as the categories under which school experiences are organized presents a defensible method of procedure. It, therefore, adheres to the second alternative supporting categories which are more fundamental because inherently involved and directly concerned with the proposed functions of American secondary schools and because more in harmony with the demands of present-day psychology of learning.<sup>2</sup>

State departments are beginning to recognize the necessity for reorganization. In the *Suggestions Relative to Sequences* issued by the New York State Department in 1935 appears the following statement:

In discussing briefly the sequences which are recommended in the various fields of study, it is appreciated that the boundaries by which these various school subjects are separated are quite artificial.

Both of the above statements are more or less negative—no positive program is proposed. The positive program must await more careful evaluation.

<sup>2</sup> *Issues of Secondary Education*, Department of Secondary School Principals, p. 290.

In attempting to evaluate fusion, we are thrown back at once upon transfer of training or transfer of improved efficiency. This does not seem to be the place to attempt to enumerate the elements that the psychologists have discovered in transfer of training. Needless to say, we are fairly well agreed that some transfer does take place. Our problem is largely that of facilitating the transfer process.

With the standard or conventional alignment of subject-matter emphasis, we must depend upon rather general transfer of improved efficiency. Subjects thus taught are organized with the idea of broad application in many fields. For instance, presumably the study of chemistry in high school might prepare one for some of the generalizations he might make later if he should become a doctor, a pharmacist, a dentist, a tinner, a plumber, a chef, a metallurgist, a baker, a painter (on canvas or on a barn), a farmer, a photographer, or a detective. With such a wide range of possible applications surely each and every person in high school should study chemistry.

And if such generalizations actually were made there could be little doubt of the value of such a study, but the simple fact is that formal subject matter remains formal in the experience of many pupils. The doctor and the metallurgist must study the chemistry of medicine and the chemistry of metals. The baker becomes a master workman by the simple process of learning formulas that have been worked out—and so on down the list. If transfer is necessary it must be taught in a natural setting. If transfer is not necessary it probably will not take place at all.

But grant that some pupils in high school do have definite vocational objectives that might require a knowledge of chemistry, would the study of courses in chemistry as a specialized science offer practical opportunities for them? This seems reasonable and many schools have attempted to give just this. Hence, we find courses in the chem-

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istry of foods, the chemistry of the dairy, the chemistry of the farm, and others.

Such an adaptation seems to be a solution of our dilemma, but on second thought we must agree that the extent to which a formal and specialized subject like chemistry is placed in its natural setting, to that very extent it is no longer formal and specialized. It is fused and integrated with a life situation.

Probably a better example is to be found in the teaching of reading. When I first entered school we were taught the alphabet. This seemed logical, for by knowing the alphabet one was presumed to be prepared to learn to spell and to read. In other words, the knowledge of the alphabet could be carried over—transferred to spelling and to reading. But when a study was made of the efficiency of learning to read by learning words, the discovery was made that a knowledge of the alphabet was a distinct hindrance. And finally, reading was taught by phrases, sentences and even by paragraphs.

The longer span of understanding increased the reading ability, for most types of material, but usually developed less efficient spellers. In this case a specialized and formal understanding of words actually interfered with the ability to read—but did contribute to the ability to spell. Indeed, training seems to be specific.

We may conclude that some high-school pupils may have need for formal and specialized knowledge. Probably most of them do not. Certainly, those who plan to go to college do not—college and high school enjoy practically no articulation, as has been shown by many studies. Evidence is being accumulated that the college preparatory student is the one who can profit most from the integrated offering.

But, what is this integrated offering?

In a very real sense the integrated offering is the equivalent of the school of experience. And those of us who have been trained in a school are likely to be rather

contemptuous of the self-made man. He has worked out many principles by the laborious method of trial and error—you and I have had presented to us the principles of the ages, and in the most condensed and direct form. Most of these you and I never take the time to test—most of them we promptly lay aside and forget.

But society has set up schools because we are convinced that the environment is not rich enough to provide young people with all the necessary tools of knowledge. Since this is so, we must conclude that the school can never exist merely as an extension of the life the child would live anyway—it must enrich and intensify the life that would be lived outside the school. The conclusion seems to be that the integrated program may adopt the methods of the school of experience or even of the school of hard knocks, yet it must be much broader, deeper and more fine-grained than independent experiences are likely to be, always admitting that many experiences outside the school will have a much more profound influence on future life than many experiences within the school.

The point to be emphasized is that the integrated program must not be confused with a school where pupils take over all the functions of teaching and where they everlastingly "do what they want to do." If such were the desire of a school, then society would not need to employ teachers and provide schools—an increased police force might be sufficient. But, the integrated school does propose to present all its subject matter in a setting that will have meaning for each pupil.

What are the major difficulties in such a program?

1. The most obvious difficulty to be overcome is the natural inertia of all concerned. Even though we should decide that integration is the better plan, inertia may compel us to do nothing about it. With the pressures on the school as great as they are, such inertia would be unfortunate.



2. Teachers in the American high schools are trained as specialists. To ask them to abandon not only the way they teach, but also the way they were taught is asking almost the impossible. Some of you may object to the emphasis I am placing on the lack of ability of teachers to handle the program. May I illustrate why this transition is so difficult?

In the standard school the courses of study are set up in some detail, showing what is to be accomplished over a definite period of time. A teacher may take a course of study and proceed with his teaching with considerable assurance that he is following the correct procedure. Even though the last decade has seen many teachers engaged in course-of-study construction, the fact is that official sanction was usually given to the material once it was included in the course. If teachers are asked to teach without sanctions they are entirely lost.

For instance, many teachers have said "show us what you want taught and we shall teach it." This seems to be a cooperative attitude—just the attitude that we have commended in teachers in the past, but it demonstrates a complete failure to understand the new procedure. But how can we expect teachers to teach the right things unless they are told what the right things are? And here is the heart of the problem: If they have to be told, then they can never teach the "right" things.

The program can never be an individualized, integrated program unless the teacher or teachers who are in direct touch with the pupil are able to adapt the program to his needs and interests. This calls for the professionalization of teaching. We have not reached that stage as yet.

3. The third objection that we hear voiced often is that the integrated, individualized program cannot be evaluated. We have grown to accept marks and home reports—to abandon them is impossible. But to use them in the present form with the integrated program is not logical. The

argument that colleges need anything resembling the conventional reports is being answered by many colleges where they have devised their own systems of selective admissions.

The colleges have not hesitated to take us to task because of the product we have sent on to them, yet they have been just as insistent upon a program of preparatory training. Many colleges are beginning to realize that personal characteristics possessed by their entering students are far more important than any amount of specialized knowledge that they might have mastered. Leland Stanford has recognized from its beginning that any subjects offered by the high school toward graduation should be accepted for college admission.

The experiment being conducted at present by the Progressive Education Association should go far to convince college faculties that they are no longer justified in prescribing a pattern of admission requirements that will include emphasis on formalized and specialized subject matter. There is considerable evidence to indicate that many types of admission patterns will provide good candidates for higher education. Bold, indeed, is the college faculty that maintains that it has found the final answer to the question, "What constitutes adequate preparation for college?"

4. The fourth major objection to integration is that we don't know what people should study, if they don't study the conventional subjects. Why not play safe and stick to the old? It has been tested.

In one of the schools in New York a storm of criticism arose over the making of nut-bread by some of the boys. The teachers thought this a worthy project—the parents thought that more time should be given to the fundamentals, and less time to such frills as the making of nut-bread. The school defended itself in terms of the teaching of proportion, fractions, etc. Some of the parents thought that the old-fashioned methods were good enough.

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In another school a principal was dismissed for insisting upon the old-fashioned.

Since we don't *know* what pupils should study, how can we expect teachers to take the initiative and lead pupils in their study? Suppose we say that doctors must *know* how to cure a common cold before they prescribe for a patient with a cold. No doctor knows how to cure a cold. He must make the best guess that he can under the circumstances. Certainly the prescription of the conventional subject matter of the school is no guarantee that pupils will be getting what they should have. The teacher, who is in close contact with the pupils, is the logical person to lead the pupils in their study. There seems to be no other way.

5. The fifth common criticism of the integrated program is that we cannot be sure that each subject or department is getting its fair share of the emphasis.

One of the best ways of insuring a formal and hollow offering would be to adopt a plan that involves the teacher in any set percentage of time for any department or subject. One school collected a number of units of work and analyzed them for the content that could be accredited to each subject-matter field. Those units that represented about the conventional distribution of time were accepted and taught in the school. Obviously, any such procedure will result in formal offerings that, if anything, are more artificial and less defensible than the standard offering.

6. Supervision of the new plan will be chaotic.

It certainly will be if supervision is thought of in terms of the usual practices. Teacher coöperation in supervision will be promoted and the real supervisor will devote his energies largely to the problem of getting teachers to work more creatively. Never can the supervisor tell the teacher what to teach or how to teach it. Coöperative supervision and coöperative teaching will be essential, for no teacher will have sufficient talent to handle all phases of

complicated integrated programs without the aid of others. And no formal program in teacher education can give to any teacher sufficient versatility to permit him to work alone.

If any teacher understands his work he will be relying upon other teachers and many laymen to promote the learning of any group. It appears almost axiomatic that the teacher who best knows his job will be the teacher who will be most dependent on all those forces at work about him for aid and counsel.

Probably the training and the experience of those now teaching in the secondary school make a program of integration impossible. This in itself is no cause for assuming that such a program is not feasible. Many young people enter the ranks of secondary-school teaching each year. If these new teachers are competently educated for the newer types of service it will not take long to alter the emphasis in the school itself. This leads us to the final major objection to integration.

7. Teacher-education institutions are poorly prepared to provide for the type of teaching implied in the integrated school. Here we see that we are caught up in the endless cycle. Teachers are taught to teach as they are taught.

For some unknown reason teacher education has been more successful on the elementary than on the secondary level. Elementary schools have long accepted the theory of integration, and teacher education has provided for this type of service. While most observers approve of this type of work on the elementary level, they may be just as insistent that the first year of secondary education shall be a year of specialized instruction. The reason for this conclusion is not clear.

Possibly we should not close our discussion without calling attention to two further objections to integration. Both were implied in the preceding list of objections.

8. Specialists need systematic basic train-

ing. The hit-or-miss program of integration will not provide the necessary background.

Undoubtedly such an assertion is sound. But lest we rely too heavily on this argument for the retention of the standard program we should note that secondary-school students are not potential specialists in the real sense of the word. Probably the general offering will provide as adequately as any for college preparation and the college itself should provide any necessary specialized training.

We do face more of a dilemma when we consider such subjects as foreign language. Here, we are likely to conclude, is a course that is specialized. As foreign languages have been taught in American schools they have been specialized; so specialized, indeed, that comparatively few pupils have gained any proficiency in the use of the

languages. Eventually we may evolve a plan whereby foreign languages may be taught in a much more direct and more practical manner.

9. There is little evidence that fusion will do all the things that are claimed for it. Truly, it may become formal; just as much that goes under the banner of progressive education is formal and barren.

The high school is being subjected to pressures on all sides. Compromises are inevitable. All elements cannot be satisfied entirely, but we shall be forced to move in the direction of the greatest good for the greatest number. Of this we may be sure unless, indeed, America decides to abandon the democratic principle. Our greatest contribution is in promoting a democratic high school that will, in turn, promote a democratic society.

## \* \* FLASHES \* \*

We cannot fully understand any situation unless we give attention to our duties as well as to our rights.—ORVILLE C. PRATT, *Journal of the National Education Association*.

Too much of shamateurism and not enough amateurism is the general accusation leveled at our present system of high school athletics.—BROTHER URBAN H. FLEECE, *The Catholic School Journal*.

Until the ranks have been renewed by men and women of vigor, vision, and a will to do, the schools will be compelled to move slowly and painfully on their way.—ERNEST C. STEELE, *Educational Method*.

The tendency to form attitudes which will express themselves in intelligent social action is something very different from indoctrination, just as taking intelligent aim is very different from firing BB shot in the air at random with the kind of vague, pious hope that somehow or other a bird may fly into some of the shot.—JOHN DEWEY, *Progressive Education*.

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# YOU GET TIRED OF IT AFTER A WHILE

By R. C. NICHOLS

**M**OST of us have been taught through copy-book maxims that we should, at an early age, subject ourselves to self-analysis to discover our aptitudes and specific abilities and select our chosen vocation on that basis. That method would be excellent were the self-analysis impersonal and external circumstances did not exert its influence.

Most of us are doing what we are doing today, whether it be in a profession or business world, more by accident than by design. I believe that statement could be verified by consultation with any given number of men in business or in the professions. One would find individual after individual who had planned to follow some other vocation, and yet through circumstances was forced to stay in his present vocation, making a mediocre success because he feared the dangers connected with a change or his responsibilities



EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is a type of article that all too rarely crosses an editor's desk. Ordinarily, superintendents who write for THE CLEARING HOUSE explain, with pardonable pride, some method that they have developed to improve the level of education in their schools. But here a superintendent comes right out and frankly discusses himself, his relations with the community, and how he happened to be in his profession. While this article was being written, we published in the February issue "A Principal Rates Himself," and said in the Editor's Note, "Perhaps this is a kind of confession story." Now it is the turn of a superintendent. The author is superintendent of schools in Miami, Oklahoma.*

to others were such that he dared not risk economic insecurity.

There is no reason for my writing this except that it is an expression of some of my experiences in a certain vocation that I became a member of by accident rather than design and have continued in during a period of twelve years. Any experiences enumerated here are probably no different than those others have had—because they are common to the profession and are varied only by the type of community in which one works. Again and again you hear a man state that he does not want his son to follow the same vocation that he follows. No doubt that is due to the fact that, being so close to his vocation, he knows all of the disagreeableness and disadvantages of it, while to the outsider only the advantages are apparent.

As before stated, for twelve years I have engaged in a profession that thirteen years ago I had not the remotest intention of entering. In 1918 when everyone was interested in making safe for democracy a world which has since become safer for demagoguery, I enlisted in the Service. At that time I was completing the educational status of a sophomore in high school. I was led to believe by the Recruiting Agent that the Commandant of the Ninth Naval Training District would probably resign his position in my favor upon my arrival.

After seven months of service with my educational qualifications as set forth, I was raised in the course of time to the rank of Second-Class Seaman, which one automatically becomes after having served a period of six months. Instead of becoming a

Rear Admiral or even a Regimental Commander, I devoted most of my time to doing the necessary detail work for the other forty-five thousand who were in camp.

The foregoing has no bearing on what follows, other than that, having shoveled enough coal to keep the State of Michigan warm for about twenty-five years, along with other kinds of detail work, I did make a firm resolve that if these United States and the rest of the world had to be made safe for democracy again that I would prefer to let someone else shovel the coal, shine the brass, and peel the potatoes.

Continuance of my education seemed to be the best solution to the problem, so the fall following my discharge from the Service found me enrolled in prep school in order to meet the requirements for university entrance. After entering the university and finishing the requirements for entrance to law school I enrolled in that school with the firm intention of gratifying my boyhood ambition to become a lawyer.

Sometimes circumstances compel us to change our course of action and sometimes we follow the line of least resistance and allow ourselves to be swerved from our original intent. An individual who attends school without any source of income can accumulate a number of obligations through a period of years.

Not being able to continue in college, at the close of my junior year, I decided that the easiest way of securing the necessary money was by teaching.

At that time the teaching was to last only for a period of one year, and at the end of that time I was supposed to have saved enough out of the magnificent salary that teachers receive to retire the National Debt that had been accumulating. When I look back over my experiences as a teacher through the years and realize how little I know now for assuming that role, I wonder at my own abysmal ignorance and the patience of the patrons and children. Perhaps the last statement is not entirely correct. I

did not know, but fortunately they did not know that I did not know—and it was not patience or kindness on their part.

If I should ever by accident acquire sufficient funds for my own protection, with an amount in excess, I would gladly return the funds that district paid me the first year.

At the time I entered the teaching profession it was not nearly so overcrowded as it is at the present time, with thousands of unemployed applying for non-existing positions. I had the choice of two positions. One was in a junior college as an instructor, and the other was as superintendent of a very small school.

I exercised the same degree of judgment that I have frequently exercised since and selected the superintendency. Somewhere I had read that Caesar made the statement that he had rather be first in an Iberian village than second in Rome. But anyone who has had the experience of serving in the capacity of superintendent of a small school would prefer the Roman atmosphere.

This village was an average, medium-sized western community. There must have been at least a population of 200 except on Sundays and holidays, when those who had means of transportation visited adjoining towns.

I had never had any preparation for teaching in regard to administration, supervision, or methods, and therefore was not handicapped by the opinions of others. The only preparation that I had was what little knowledge I had acquired in subject-matter classes. The board of education that employed me fortunately did not know my limitations. They had the uneducated man's attitude toward universities and collegiate training—that there was something magic about it and anyone who had been to school was prepared to teach. In view of the fact that I met the requirements as far as hours were concerned, I was appointed.

I shall never forget the night I went down to appear before that august body. They were a fine group of men, and far superior

to the town as concerned.

One manages the elevator too small group—I don't like the scale. I had elaborated academically me to a village.

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to the average board member in a small town as far as reason and ability were concerned.

One of the members of the board was manager of the local elevator. We met at the elevator—not in the office, which was too small to accommodate the size of the group—but in the hallway over the scales. I don't know what particular significance the scales had in the matter.

I had prepared what I considered a rather elaborate speech on both my personal and academic qualifications that would enable me to conduct a successful school in their village. After due deliberation by the board I was informed that I had been elevated from the rank of a private citizen and had acquired the dignified title and office of Superintendent of Schools, subject to all the emoluments thereof, to say nothing of its liabilities.

I thought when I was elected to this position that I was to be merely what the title implied, but I discovered that I had more titles than my election called for. In addition to being Superintendent I was Principal and Faculty of the high school, with the privilege of looking after the Elementary School at odd times.

Readers who have taught in a third-class high school, where one teacher has to teach all the subjects offered, know what I am talking about. I met classes in seven different subjects. I soon found out that the limited knowledge I had acquired in numerous subjects did not prepare me to consume forty-five minutes of time day after day in each of those seven classes. Never having heard of supervised study and directed learning, I was under the impression that in order to teach effectively it was necessary for me to use most of that time either in lecturing or in presenting questions to the class. It was necessary for me to stay up every night until 12:00 and 1:00 o'clock in order to prepare sufficient knowledge for the morrow's dissipation.

After that first hectic year, why I contin-

ued in a profession into which I had no intention of entering and which I had certainly not enjoyed, is more than I can explain.

Some might call it destiny, but I am more inclined to believe that it was economic necessity, due to the fact that during the course of that year I assumed the responsibility of a wife. While it was difficult to continue in school with only myself to look after, it was impossible to go back to the study of law with a wife, and later on a family, to maintain and support.

It would not add anything to this article to enumerate the happenings through the years that have intervened since I taught my first school.

Twelve years later I find myself still wishing that some way, some how, I had completed my legal training and engaged in the practice of Law. Fortunately, while anyone who is in the teaching profession works hard and dies poor, most of the years have not been so difficult as my first as far as the actual work was concerned. Not so difficult from the standpoint of details and drudgery, but more difficult from the standpoint of participation in public affairs and responsibilities.

I presume that individuals in every profession wish time after time that they had selected another one and all could give numerous reasons why they should be following some other vocation. They, too, get tired of it after a while.

Tomorrow I will have reached the age of thirty-five. That doesn't seem so old to me now, although when I was fifteen anyone that age was bordering on senility.

Walter Pitkin has written at great length on why life begins at forty. There are a number of reasons why life should begin at thirty-five. Certainly it is time for an individual to take stock of his achievements and his hopes for the future. The delusions of youth are past. The things that we thought were so important relative to station in life or society assume roles of relative un-

importance. One becomes less interested in quantity and perhaps more interested in quality of life lived.

Although a member of the teaching profession, whose members are very sensitive to criticism and the opinions of others, I find that those things do not affect me so much as they once did. My success in the teaching profession has been anything but phenomenal from the standpoint of professional promotions. From a financial standpoint I find myself at the age of thirty-five with perhaps enough in the way of assets barely to offset my liabilities in a kindly market.

That, in itself, is more or less discouraging. Of course, through the years I have been attending school quite regularly every summer in order to keep up with the trends in the profession. This has necessitated considerable expenditure of money—and the only tangible evidence I have is two degrees from the university. However, should I change to some other profession, I am afraid that a rather low value would be placed on those acquisitions. Whenever I become unduly pessimistic I have been told that the service that one renders is of incalculable value, but that is small compensation for years of preparation and toil, nor can it be used as legal tender to discharge obligations.

It has been my observation that the prizes of the modern world go to those who ruthlessly take and not to those who serve.

It is not so much what has passed before thirty-five that keeps me so much concerned, although when I reflect over that period I am not at all satisfied with what has transpired. What does the future hold for one after thirty-five in the teaching profession, particularly in the field of public-school administration?

I have observed capable men, well qualified, and experienced, who were retired at forty-five or fifty because they were "too old." In a sense they were too old to keep the pace that is required of a superintendent of schools in an average, medium-sized town or city. It amounts almost to an endurance

contest because of the numerous public demands on one's time. But that is not true of the other professions of law or medicine. As long as an individual has sufficient physical ability he is supposed to increase in "knowledge and stature," as long as he has command of his faculties.

Members of the teaching profession, as a class, have higher academic qualifications than those in most of the professions or in the commercial world. Yet, when it comes to political questions, local, state or national, they are not supposed to express an opinion. Even an expression of an opinion in class will cause an individual to be accused of indoctrination.

Teachers are employed to teach the children factual subject matter that has no relation to life. Any attempt to interpret the life processes in a community is frowned upon. Is it any wonder that a teacher becomes a type of personality instead of an individual?

One gets tired of it after a while. The continuous complaints about minor, insignificant things . . . the diplomacy that has to be resorted to in order to keep patrons in the right frame of mind toward the school.

School marks are, in reality, of minor importance but to some parents there is a vast difference between an A— and B+—a problem that has to be defended, requiring a great deal of time, if the lower mark happens to be given. The administrator is, in a sense, a "shock absorber" defending the teacher against unreasonable charges of patrons, upholding, in many cases, policies which he knows to be wrong. He is maligned, misrepresented, and misunderstood. If he makes a mistake in grammar he is an illiterate and should have known better. If he fails to raise his hat to certain individuals he is discourteous and therefore unfit to guide and direct the youth put in his keeping.

Perhaps he should be thankful for all of the public assistance that he receives. In the town in which I am employed there are

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hundreds of individuals who would be superintendent. They know how to run a school. They do not attempt to tell their physician how to treat them for their ailments or instruct their lawyer how to plead their case—but they know how children should be taught.

Progress has gone on and on in the commercial world and in the professional world. But any progressive innovations in a school system are "fads and frills."

After a school administrator has served a limited time in a community and has acquired sufficient experience and knowledge of that community to do effective work, then it is time for a change. Decisions have to be made day after day and naturally a great many of them are not favorable, and opposition is thereby created. Sometimes we would like to tell patrons, in the words of Woodrow Wilson, what we dare not tell them: "The reason your children do not do any better in school is because they are your children."

If a school teacher is aggressive and participates in community life he is trying to push himself forward and is neglecting his school work. On the other hand, if he fails to participate in civic, commercial and church life, he is selfish and is not contributing his part.

He should have a philosophy of life that will make him realize that he may be getting along splendidly today and still be very unpopular tomorrow. He should reconcile himself to the fact that the American public views the administrator as it views anyone who is in a position of temporary authority,

power or achievement. Cheers turn to jeers. In the words of Horace Greeley, "Those who cheer you today will curse you tomorrow." As some psychologist has expressed it, "The higher one soars, the smaller he looks to those who are left behind."

Sometimes when you have had a particularly hard day and go home and attempt to rest before going to some form of community meeting or committee meeting, and receive numerous telephone calls registering complaints, you wonder if it is worth while. You feel like the streetcar conductor who stopped his car loaded with passengers and turning to them said, "To hell with this job," and walked out. You want to get "a way down on the farm where there isn't any harm, etc."

I suppose there comes a time to every individual when he subjects himself to self-analysis and wonders why he is doing what he is doing and if he would have been happier and more successful in some other vocation. You get tired of it after a while, but no doubt that is true of everything else. And maybe a form of explosion acts as a safety valve and leaves one feeling better. I suppose I shall continue in this same vocation as long as a tolerant board of education and a considerate public will permit. I do like boys and girls and people. If it were not for that, the work of a school teacher would be intolerable.

So, perhaps the profession has some compensations that other professions do not have, and although you do get tired of it after a while, you continue to make every possible effort to retain your position.

I suppose every institution in the land would deny that it is careless in this matter, yet, according to the information at hand from the (teachers) colleges, only about sixty per cent of their faculties, taken as a whole, can be classed as excellent or good.—  
A. J. MEADORS, Dean of Arkansas State Teachers College, in  
*Peabody Journal of Education*.

# DEEP SPRINGS:

## *An Experiment in Education*

By L. A. KIMPTON

**D**EEP SPRINGS is almost impossible to describe in traditional educational terminology unless one says that it is a small, heavily endowed junior college, located at Deep Springs, California, making no charge for board, room, or tuition, and limited to twenty carefully selected students.

But such a description does not even touch the real nature of the institution. It is probably the paradoxical elements in its principles and ideals which prevent it from fitting into any of the well-known molds. It is certainly progressive in its educational aims in the sense that it endeavors to discover and assist the interests of its students. On the other hand, it tries to plant and nurture worthy intellectual and social interests in them as well.

Deep Springs is certainly not a technical school, and yet its aim is to prepare the student for life. It is devoted to the highest intellectual training and attainment, and yet it insists that hard physical work must accompany them. It is dedicated to the development of leaders, and yet it isolates its students for a period of three years from the world.

Finally, it makes no charge of any kind for any of the advantages offered, and yet it demands more of its students than per-

haps any school in the world. To say the very least, the school is unique, and the only way a description can be given of it is through a genetic account of its origin and development.

Deep Springs was founded by the late L. L. Nunn, a lawyer by profession, but best known to the industrial world as a financier and organizer of public utilities. And oddly enough, it was from his experiences as a pioneer in electrical power transmission that Mr. Nunn's ideas on education took form. Mr. Nunn, with his brother, Mr. P. N. Nunn, was among the earliest to experiment with the possibility of transmitting electrical current over long distances, and when his early ventures proved successful, he began to build large generating plants.

He began his work in the West, and soon found that he could not obtain well-trained engineers from the Eastern schools; they either refused to come altogether, or, if they came, were unable to stand the rigors of the Western climate and crude civilization. The problem then became one of taking young Western lads and making engineers of them.

The Nunn power plants served as schools; and the young men in return for their labor, were given board, room, and a sound practical and theoretical course in engineering. As time went on, the educational work of the power plants became less and less a means to an end, until finally it became the end itself, and Mr. Nunn, in his later life, devoted all of his time and his fortune to the education of young men. The training of engineers ceased to be the chief motive of his work, and he turned his attention to the whole problem of education.

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *Deep Springs is an unusual junior college that can accommodate only twenty boys. They are selected from among candidates all over the United States, and must have the highest qualifications. The author is dean of this school, which is located at Deep Springs, California.*



Education, he felt, must be dedicated to developing in a young man what the world needs in him, namely, responsibility, initiative, and leadership. Learning and intellectual training are of great value, but only when they are the tools of these characteristics. His ideal became to select promising young men, give them the finest education obtainable, and above all develop in them an abiding sense of responsibility, and the initiative to take the lead in directing others toward worthy ends.

He had found through his earlier experiences in practical education certain methods by which this latter end could be attained.

First, he realized that self-government among a group of young men did more than anything else to develop leadership and a feeling of responsibility. Each member of a group of young men officially in charge of their own affairs seemed to awaken to a feeling of obligation for the correct conduct of those affairs.

Second, he had found that intellectual work when handled in a certain way developed this same spirit of responsibility. The classes must be small, the standards must be set very high, and the boys must be encouraged in every possible way to develop themselves through wide reading and independent thought.

Third, he discovered that physical work of some kind must accompany this intellectual training. This factor in the educational curriculum made the boy a better-balanced person, it gave him a genuine respect for work, no matter of what kind, and more than anything else, it gave him a sense of obligation to perform and to perform well any job which he himself saw was worth doing. And lastly Mr. Nunn had found that almost complete isolation from the distractions of modern civilization during that crucial period of development in the middle and late teens allowed a boy to accomplish a great deal by way of self-development and self-analysis.

Deep Springs, which Mr. Nunn founded and endowed with over a half million dollars in 1917, was the fulfillment of his ideals in education. Deep Springs is really the name of a valley located in the east-central part of California close to the Nevada line. Although it is in the desert, its altitude of over 5,000 feet assures a cool and healthful climate, and in order to preserve the isolation of the spot, Mr. Nunn bought much of the land and all of the water rights in and around the valley.

A cattle ranch had already been operated in the valley, and the founder preserved the ranch buildings and erected the school buildings nearby.<sup>1</sup> Thus the location assured almost complete isolation and an abundance of physical work for the students. The school, the ranch, and all of the property were deeded to the Deep Springs Student Body to be held under the guardianship of a board of eight self-perpetuating trustees, and a management consisting of a dean,<sup>2</sup> faculty, and professional ranch manager.

The student body was given complete control over the discipline of its members, and theoretically at least, unlimited authority to control the affairs and policies of the ranch and school. The single limitation upon its authority was to be the willingness and ability of its members to assume responsibility; everything is under its control so long as and to the extent that the members of the group are able to exercise that control wisely. Each student works a half day at some job in connection with the ranch under the general supervision of a professional ranch manager and under the direct guidance of the student labor commissioner.

The boys do the general work of the

<sup>1</sup> The ranch was not to be considered as a commercial enterprise, but only as a part of the educational plan. Indeed, because of the arid climate and sandy soil, the ranch has always been operated at a loss.

<sup>2</sup> The present Dean of Deep Springs is L. A. Kimpton, A.B., M.A. Stanford, Ph.D. Cornell.



ranch, handle the dairy, the office, the garage, the laundry, the orderly work about the buildings and the grounds. Each job is held by every student for one term during his residence at Deep Springs.

Each boy is made responsible to the student body for the performance of his job, and he is judged by the group partly on his effectiveness and mostly on his attitude toward his work. Laziness, refusal to accept responsibility, and lack of initiative in physical tasks are judged far more harshly than mere deficiency in strength or skill.

The intellectual work is of the very highest order and is carried on under the direct supervision of the dean and his faculty of three men. The work is divided into two terms beginning in September and ending in May, with a vacation of three months during the summer when the boys are allowed to go home. Since the school is limited to twenty students, the classes are very small, and much of the work is carried on under the tutorial system without formal class meetings. The faculty is a carefully selected group made up for the most part of men with the Ph.D. degree. They are chosen not only for breadth of training and academic achievement, but also because of sympathy with the educational ideals of the institution.

The library consists of about 10,000 volumes and is supplemented by an exchange arrangement with the California State Library at Sacramento.

The school is equipped with excellent laboratory facilities for teaching elementary and more advanced chemistry, physics, biology, and geology. The aim of the scholastic work is to give the student a thorough and a broad background in both the sciences and the arts. The students remain for a period of three years, but since they devote half of their time to the ranch work, they are granted only two years of college credit. Actually they accomplish much more than the equivalent of two years' college work, but the assumption is made that the

students come to the institution for an education, and no stress is laid on either grades or college credits.

The guiding idea behind the scholastic work is once again the development of responsibility and initiative. Satisfaction of regular class assignments is presupposed, and the student is judged upon his ability to use profitably his leisure time for additional reading and study.

The staff of instruction is always ready to assist a man in any intellectual interest, and each student is expected to have some extracurricular interest upon which he is working independently. Whatever facilities are necessary for the pursuit of this project are placed at his command.

And what kind of a young man does this training produce? Perhaps the best description would be the following: An adequately grounded and trained, well-balanced and responsible young man, rather mature and serious-minded for his years, but neither a pedant nor a prig. He knows the value of hard work, and he can be trusted to do and do well what should be done. He is an excellent student, but not in the usual "grade-grabbing" sense. He has a sincere and earnest desire to learn and to improve himself.

This is a general and somewhat abstract statement of the purpose, plan, and result of Deep Springs. But what of the more practical questions: How does Deep Springs select its students, where do they go upon leaving Deep Springs, what have they accomplished in life, and what are they expected to accomplish?

Deep Springs selects very carefully each year from eight to ten new men. A candidate to receive serious consideration must have been graduated or be about to be graduated from high school, he must be far above the average in scholarship, and he must show definite promise of leadership and seriousness of purpose. Recommendations are welcomed from school supervisors, high-school principals and counselors who know the student and are familiar with the purposes and

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advantages of the educational foundation.

While Deep Springs makes no charge of any kind for board, room, or tuition, it is definitely not a charity. It is a free school only in order that intellectual ability and character may be the sole qualifications for entrance.

It might be mentioned that a student is dropped from the institution when he is discovered to be incapable of measuring up to the standards set by the educational plan. Hence it is no kindness to the boy or to the institution to recommend a student who is unfit. After the candidate applies, his application is judged by the committee on entrance, and if it shows promise, he is called upon and interviewed by the Dean of Deep Springs. No student is accepted without an interview, and the school is willing to send its representative any place in the United States to interview likely candidates. Every applicant is given serious consideration, particularly when recommended by a teacher in the field of secondary education.

It is urged, though it is not absolutely necessary, that the candidate make application a year in advance of the time he hopes to enter the school. Deep Springs endeavors to follow its applicants through their final year in high school and to make whatever investigations may be necessary into their family background and into their home environment.

Graduates of Deep Springs usually finish

their college work at Cornell University where a brother institution founded by Mr. Nunn, the Telluride Association, exists. The Telluride Association is a separately endowed foundation which is very similar to Deep Springs except that it is devoted to upper division and graduate work and omits entirely the physical work carried on at Deep Springs. While most of the Deep Springs graduates go to Cornell, there is no obligation to do this, and Deep Springs has never had any trouble having its credits accepted at any institution of higher education.

The school is too young to make any very accurate analysis of the success in after life of its graduates. The obligation which a student incurs by his attendance is to devote himself to the service and betterment of humanity throughout his life. Consequently, the professions of engineering, law, medicine, government service, and education have been upon the whole the choices of Deep Springs graduates, and they are very well represented in Washington and in the universities of the United States.

As mentioned before, however, almost all of its graduates are still young men, and their success in life is hard to judge. Whatever can be done for them by way of inculcation of sound principles, high ideals, and thorough training has been done, and these young men are and will be credits to their college and to their country.

## Democratic Teaching

I often wonder how much of the effect of the best teaching of the most successful teachers ceases at the door of the classroom, save for those students who come immediately under its influence, and save as other teachers are inspired to do likewise because of accidental contacts. It is my conviction that abandonment of democratic methods is in education by far the greatest single source of unnecessary waste of products of past experience. This subject is one aspect of the most pressing problem of the present era. We cannot have undemocratic methods in our institutions and yet expect political democracy to be founded on a rock.

—JOHN DEWEY, *Teachers College, Columbia University.*

# THEIR SCHOOLS (German, French) and English

## are DIFFERENT

By  
T. J. MAHAN

WHEN you step into a German school, all of the students stand, face you and bow. Perhaps they might sing for you as they once did in one of the German secondary schools. Thinking that they were doing the American visitor an honor by singing what they believed to be a typical American song, they sang:

There is a boarding house not far away

Where they have ham and eggs three times a day.

You can always hear them yell,

When they hear the dinner bell,

For they have ham and eggs three times a day.

The German Volksschule (people's school) is of especial interest to an American visitor since it provides the total educational opportunity for the masses of German children. About ninety per cent of the German children attend only the Volksschule. Although this instruction corresponds in grades to our elementary school, it is much more narrow in its offerings. The Volksschulen of Heidelberg, which are typical, are entirely barren of beauty. There is nothing in evidence to brighten the classrooms. A few objects, including blocks and spheres for illustrations



EDITOR'S NOTE: *A visit to the schools of Germany, France, and England during a European trip resulted in this article which indicates the contrast between education in those three countries and in America. The author, who is dean of men and professor of education at the Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado, had several humorous experiences with foreign schools and school systems, which he relates with relish.*

in arithmetic, together with the schoolmaster's rod, which is always in evidence, constitute the chief equipment.

When a German pupil recites, he stands and literally yells at the top of his voice. There are many repetitions of the same thing by different pupils, and the teacher epitomizes all that was embodied in the American "drill-master disciplinarian" concept of the teacher of the past.

In one of the Volksschulen in Heidelberg I witnessed a schoolmaster drag a boy from his seat and haul him to the front of the room by the collar of his shirt and coat. The lad was then pounded over the head vigorously with the master's closed fist, his hair was pulled, and he was shaken violently. This punishment was administered not because the boy had done anything wrong, but merely because he did not recite as the master thought he should.

All of the other pupils sat trembling in their seats for fear they would be next. If such disciplinary measures are taken in the presence of a visitor, what indignities the children must be subjected to when there is no one else around!

Boys and girls are taught in separate classes in the German schools. The boys have only men teachers and the girls are taught solely by women.

The curriculum of the Volksschule consists of twelve or thirteen of the common subjects; a course of study for which some of our American "abolish the frills" enthusiasts are pleading. The German boy or girl, born of common parentage, is destined to life in the lower social and occupational levels of society and cannot rise above the status of the parents. They have little use, therefore,

for education in other than the rudimentary subjects.

A slight tendency toward greater democracy in the German schools has been shown since the World War, in that a few of the most gifted pupils are permitted to go on to higher levels of training. Also, the Volksschule trains the children of the upper classes up to the fourth grade. From this level on, their training is in schools entirely independent of the Volksschule and fits them for the various positions of leadership which are closed to the common people by virtue of birth.

Under the Hitler regime the textbooks are being rewritten to indoctrinate the masses in the forms of religion and history which seem to be most conducive to the welfare of the Nazi state. As a part of the anti-Semitic movement, they are actually teaching that Christ was Aryan from both his father's and his mother's side.

German secondary-school students enjoy a little more freedom than do the children of the Volksschule, and unfortunately they pursue about the same subjects as those taught in most of our American high schools. Both secondary and higher schools impress one by the meager equipment. Everywhere there is evidence that the student must rely largely upon his own initiative and resources, which seems to be an asset to their system of education.

Standards of training for teachers seem to be relatively much higher than in America, when we consider that in order to teach in a German secondary school, one must have a Doctor's degree. This is greatly discounted, however, by the fact that one coming to Oxford University with the Doctor's degree from Germany, is allowed to take the Bachelor's degree at Oxford in two year's time.

It is not our purpose to discuss the secondary and higher schools of Europe here; hence, we shall turn to a consideration of the French elementary schools.

In a conversation at a hotel in Paris, I

happened to remark to an American student of the University of Sorbonne (Paris University) that I planned to visit French schools. "But," said he, "you will have to get a permit from the Minister of Education." This was news to me, so I set out early in the afternoon (Wednesday) to get the required permit.

After reaching the sanctum of the Minister of Education, I was sent from one office to another until late in the afternoon, but with no progress. Incidentally, a Frenchman receives you in his office by showing you to a chair. Then he sits down at his desk, reads his paper, smokes his cigar and ignores you completely for fifteen or twenty minutes. He may then turn to you with the remark, "Is there something I can do for you?"

In every bureau attached to the Ministry of Education, they did not seem to be doing anything, yet seemed to be annoyed by having their afternoon siestas disturbed. Finally, after a succession of fruitless visits from one waiting room to another, which took an entire afternoon, I was given a note addressed to "The Adjutant General of Instruction" at the University of Sorbonne, and was told to see him and he would give me permission to visit schools.

After locating the "Adjutant" and presenting a letter of introduction (which also stated my desire to visit French schools) he read it, looked up at me and said, "When do you want to begin visiting our schools?" I replied, "I would like to start on Friday" (two days later). "Oh, impossible! Impossible!" said he. "You must first get a letter of introduction from the American Embassy. It will take you at least three days to get permission to visit our schools."

Somewhat disgusted, and with the thought of my experience at the office of the Minister of Education in mind, I replied, "You do things very slowly in France, don't you?" The "Adjutant" seemed a bit embarrassed at this remark and said, "Well, I'll show you that we can do things quickly, too. You go to the American Embassy tomorrow



(Thursday) and get a letter of introduction and bring it to me and I'll let you visit schools on Friday." Whereupon I answered, "No, thank you, I am going to the battlefields tomorrow."

When Friday morning came, I selected several elementary schools and still bearing my letter of introduction (written in French) from the President of the college where I am employed, I set out to visit schools. All of the principals protested vigorously, but I proceeded to visit their schools nevertheless.

The French elementary schools, like the German *Volkschulen*, are highly formalized, and the curriculum is narrow and limited. The children march in stiff lines to and from their classes; discipline is severe and instruction is motivated, as in the German schools, by blows. Dorothy Canfield gives a vivid description of the situation in the following:

Life in a military academy is no more regulated by authority than in a French school. . . . It is as easy for a German or an Italian tourist to enter a French frontier fortress with a camera in his hand as for a mother to enter a French classroom to hear a recitation in arithmetic. In each case, if an authorization could conceivably be secured, it would come from no less a person than the head of the Ministry. Everything in the school is foreordained by this distant potentate. His authority is steel-like and immutable. . . . Every hour's work is laid out in advance; there is no appeal possible, no interruption of the schedule thinkable.<sup>1</sup>

Boys and girls attend separate schools in France from the first grade on. I asked the principal of one of the girls' schools to see a copy of her program of studies. She hunted about her desk and the room for some time, and finally pulled out a pamphlet yellow with age and dated 1923. She apologized for the date but said, "It is exactly the same now; there has not been a change in our schools since 1923." After visiting some of their schools, I believed

her. The subjects offered were, in order: (1) moral and civic instruction, (2) reading, (3) writing, (4) French language, (5) history, (6) geography, (7) arithmetic, (8) natural and physical science, (9) hygiene, (10) geometric design, (11) manual training, (12) chanting (school songs), and (13) physical education.

Almost exactly as in the program of the German *Volkschulen*, the French elementary schools train the masses in the fundamental subjects. Also, as in the case of Germany, probably ninety per cent of the French children do not go beyond the elementary level.

Boys and girls are trained in separate schools from the beginning, and women teachers are never found in boys' schools, nor men teachers in girls' schools. Noting this, I asked the principal of a boys' school in Paris if he ever had any women teachers in his school. He immediately became greatly excited, threw up his hands and said with much emphasis, "Oh! No! I would not have them!"

It is common practice in European countries to segregate the sexes for pupils and teachers alike. Europeans believe Americans are making a serious mistake by having so many women teachers for boys in the schools, and that as a result, we are developing an effeminate type of man.

The early American colonial schools were patterned very largely after the English schools and the English influence dominated American educational systems for at least two centuries. From this, one might expect to find in England today, a system of schools similar to that in the United States. On the contrary, England has one of the most undemocratic systems to be found in Europe.

In the first place, "public" schools in England are not free schools. They are private institutions with tuition fees beyond the means of the great masses of the people. The free schools are mostly County Coun-

<sup>1</sup> Canfield, Dorothy, *Basque People*, pp. 41-42. Harcourt, Brace & Company. New York (1931).



cil Schools, and are highly stigmatized. The same County Council that supports the charities endows the free schools. Also, the Church contributes to the maintenance of some of these public schools and accordingly, reserves the right to supervise the systems to which it contributes.

From information provided by the present inspector of secondary schools in England, I gather that between ninety and ninety-five per cent of the English children attend only the free school and go no farther than through a level corresponding to the seventh grade in America. Any further training these children receive must be under the apprenticeship system which is still in vogue in England.

There is one slight exception to the tendency for all children of the lower classes to end their schooling at the completion of the free school. A very few get scholarships to secondary schools through competitive examinations which are held throughout the country. However, the limitations provided by this plan are such that only a few very exceptional children may receive scholarships.

The case of one large County Council School which I visited in London will serve as an illustration of the plan. I asked the principal of this school how many of the children, after completing the school, had an opportunity to go to secondary school. He replied, "They get scholarships." I pressed the question, insisting upon a definite answer. He then informed me that eight boys and four girls had received scholarships since he had been principal of the school. I then inquired how long that had been and he answered, "Five years."

It is common knowledge that none of the other children enrolled in the school could attend secondary school after graduation. They would not have been in the County Council School if their parents had been financially able to send them to a private school. The County Council School

is so highly stigmatized that only those who cannot pay the private school fees ever patronize the free schools; this is more than ninety per cent of the people.

In the English schools there is more freedom than in either the French or German schools. In marked contrast to the French and German schools, a visitor is welcome in any of the English schools. Many of the teachers, when an American visitor is present, take time to impress the children with the fact that the visitor has come all of the way from America to see their school.

Likewise, in contrast to the "hushed" atmosphere of the French and German classrooms, the teachers in the English schools frequently take time out to restore order, which decorum is only momentarily maintained. Corporal punishment is common both in the free schools and in the private schools.

The curriculum of the English free schools is as narrow as that of the other European schools, and consists of only a few fundamental subjects. From an American viewpoint, their textbooks are obsolete and antiquated. Their story of the American Revolution as told in the English histories is an amusing contrast to the American version. In one of the most commonly used history textbooks in England, the entire story of the Revolution is told in one paragraph about as follows:

About a century and a half ago, when we were engaged in conflict with our enemy, France, a few thousand Britons who had settled in America rebelled against the mother country; and as we did not need them, we let them go.

This reminds one that perhaps Napoleon's definition of history, "lies agreed upon," was a very good one.

The sons and daughters (mostly sons) of the upper classes of England are educated in the private schools from the beginning. They may enter the colleges or universities and complete their training for the various professions or for lives as English gentry.

The sons of the higher social classes are sent to the more exclusive preparatory schools such as Eton, Harrow, Winchester and Westminster where they begin their course of training for the life of an English gentleman. Eton College, one of the most elite of the secondary schools, is typical.

The first impression of an American visitor upon entering Eton, is one of amusement at the costumes worn by the boys. These lads wear top-hats and tail-coats except when they are on the athletic field. Boys enter Eton at the age of thirteen years and must be enrolled before they reach their fourteenth birthday or they are not accepted. There are six forms which must be completed, each corresponding to one year of training. After being graduated from Eton, they are enrolled at Oxford, Cambridge, or any of the leading universities where they complete their gentleman's training.

Eton College was founded in the year of 1443 and has much in the way of traditional background which must be kept up. Some of the buildings now in use were erected in 1443 when the school was first founded. Classes are still held in one of these buildings, a brick structure, which is at present in very bad repair.

In one corner of a classroom, a crude bench will be found. It is constructed of plain boards and is still used as the whipping bench. When a boy commits an offense which is considered to be deserving of punishment, he is required to strip his clothes to the waist, kneel on the bench, and is whipped on the bare back with a large bundle of birches. After this punishment has been administered, a bill is made out to the boy's father for seven shillings and six pence (about \$1.75), and is labeled "school medicine." The boy's father is required to pay this bill.

A boy was punished on this bench during the day of my visit to Eton. A large closet

is kept full of the bundles of birches and would seem to indicate that "school medicine" is administered in frequent doses.

English university education is much different from that in American universities or colleges. At Oxford, for example, undergraduates make little or no pretence of studying while they are on the campus. They do withdraw to a quiet place where they cannot be found by their friends and cram for the examinations during the vacation intervals.

Life at the college is spent chiefly in acquiring the social virtues, the Oxford accent and in learning to carry one's liquor. A requirement for an English gentleman is that he must be able to drink with the rest without being noticeably in his cups. Undergraduate credit at Oxford is given on the basis of the number of nights slept in the dormitories, on the assumption that if a boy has slept in the dormitory, he has been in school and is entitled to credit.

It should be noted that no attempt has been made in the foregoing statements to reflect upon the standards of Oxford or any of the English universities which are so widely known. Emphasis has merely been placed on some of the unusual characteristics as compared with American institutions of higher learning.

The English philosophy of education, as well as that of other European nations, is markedly different from that of America. Theirs is undemocratic and designed to meet the needs of a society which is highly stratified and where social classes are strictly defined. The English attitude toward education was well summarized in the statement of an Englishman I met in London, and with whom I had many arguments concerning the relative merits of the American and English school systems. His exact words were, "Education is like chicken; it should be enjoyed only by those who are able to afford it."

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# SUMMER SESSION

By ROSINA C. JOSEPH

"WELL, now that you've been here a month, what do you think of the summer session people?" asked a Gargantua College enthusiast who was diligently working for her M.A. degree.

"I think the one who wrote the best description of them was Robert Browning," said I.

"I don't know what you're talking about, really," said the Gargantua enthusiast indignantly.

"Have you a class next hour?" said I sweetly.

"No! Not until half past eleven. But what has that to do with it?"

"Stay here with me and watch the students pass from class to class, and from building to building, and perhaps you'll understand what I mean."

She did as I asked, and then after quietly watching the endless procession for about five minutes said sadly, "I'm sorry, but I still don't catch on."

"Let's sit here on this top step and I'll explain. Look at these folks crossing the street. Are they not great, small, lean, tawny, brown, black, gray, scrawny; grave old plodders; gay young friskers, fathers, mothers, uncles, cousins, cocking tails and pricking whiskers, families by tens and dozens, brothers, sisters, husbands, wives, following the Pied Piper for their lives?"

The Gargantua enthusiast appeared amused. "Who do you think represent the Pied Pipers?" she asked.



EDITOR'S NOTE: *Gargantua College and its summer sessions, in this whimsical satire, are meant by Miss Joseph to represent schools of education, normal schools, and their summer sessions, in all parts of the country. The author is a teacher in Western High School, Baltimore, Maryland.*

Not at all abashed by the question, I continued, "Why the professors, of course. They do not wear queer costumes, but many of them sing queer tunes, and all of these students march to them just as the rats and children marched to the tunes of the Pied Piper of Hamelin. Why, even the live rat and little lame boy who were left behind are paralleled, for has not each professor a bodyguard, consisting of one lone woman or man, who seems to be left over from the preceding group, just as the rat and the little lame boy were, to tell of the wonders of the Pied Piper's tunes and promises made by him? In order that he may not feel too lonely, does he not correct papers, lower windows, adjust blinds, and even mark the roll?"

"And since you're majoring in English, may I ask you a question? Do you suppose Robert Browning was foresighted enough to realize what the trend of modern education would be and foresee the lure that the tune of 'Come one, come all to Gargantua Summer School, and I will bestow upon you an M.A. degree and get you a position' would have on the teaching body of America?"

"You're too much for me," answered the future Gargantua M.A., "but I certainly want to thank you for giving me that clever idea about Browning and the present-day summer-school session, for perhaps I may use it as a subject for my Ph.D. thesis. So long—until tomorrow."

She left me. I sat still and wondered whether throughout the United States next winter when Education Week is being celebrated and parents come to schools to observe lessons given according to the latest tunes piped by the Pied Pipers of Gargantua and other summer schools, they would think of Browning.

# *The Burbank, Calif., Schools' 12-Year* SEQUENCE *for* SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING

By BUEL F. ENYEART and J. MURRAY LEE

"In a rapidly changing civilization new social problems thus continually arise, with ever new solutions proposed. These new solutions, democracy demands, must be passed upon by the people. Citizens must then be continually studying, criticizing their institutions to improve them. Social education thus must become a lifelong process. This must begin before twenty-one, or the person is sadly handicapped and probably biased against study and intelligent criticism."  
—William Heard Kilpatrick, *Remaking the Curriculum*. New York: Newsom and Company, 1936, p. 15.

**A**N INFORMED, critical citizenry, for which Kilpatrick points out the need, habituated to face and settle problems in a democratic way, cannot be produced by a year or two of formal instruction in "citizenship."

Citizenship is a functional thing, and comprises everything that an individual does which affects, directly or indirectly, other people. Democracy is at the same time a

form of organization, a way of life, a method for attacking problems and an attitude of mind. (A democracy cannot be made by reading a book.) The intelligent citizenship in the adult which Kilpatrick demands is the fruit of years of organized and directed social experience and does not appear suddenly at the age of 18 or 21.

What does this imply for education? It implies first that the school curriculum shall provide a sequence of social experiences in which, in miniature perhaps, the child is confronted by, and deals with, problems similar to those of adult citizenship.

It implies that the habits of thought, attitudes, methods for attacking problems which constitute good citizenship must be fostered by the school from the earliest grades on. The task does not belong to any one teacher, to any one grade, to any one "subject," but to the whole public-school system. Some of these understandings can be realized with a kindergarten child, others only on an advanced level.

The educational implications of this position mean that a sequence of experiences must be planned which will result in attaining the socially desired outcomes. There are several plans for the organization of such a sequence. The *Social Studies Year Book*<sup>1</sup> points out three possible patterns of organization.

(1) *Separate subject courses* in geography, history, civics, economics, sociology, and so

<sup>1</sup> Department of Superintendence—Fourteenth Year, 1936. *The Social Studies Curriculum*, Washington, D.C., p. 101.

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**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *The Burbank High School is one of the twelve experimental schools in California that have been freed of formal requirements, for curriculum experimentation. In this article, the authors explain the socialized, integrated program which it has been possible to develop in the Burbank City Schools under this favorable circumstance—"an indication of what a small school system can do toward reorganization."* Mr. Enyeart is superintendent, and Mr. Lee is director of curriculum and research, of the Burbank, California, City Schools.



cial psychology, organized and administered independently.

(2) *General social-studies courses*, with materials from the different fields of the subject organized and administered in definite relationship to the subject as a whole.

(3) *A correlated or integrated curriculum*, in which the social studies are organized and administered in a definite relationship to the entire curriculum, with or without the preservation of their identity.

A discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of the three plans is included in the *Year Book*, and it would be out of place to repeat it here. It does seem pertinent to note, however, that a number of states and cities which have recently revised their programs are attempting to approach more closely the third pattern, a correlated or integrated curriculum.

The careful consideration of all three patterns led the teachers and principals of the Burbank City Schools to the conviction that it would be possible to build a much more functional sequence of experiences around the third pattern. While it was impossible to integrate completely all the experiences of the child around the central core, much progress has been made in that direction; and still more is being made as special subject teachers are realizing the desired outcomes of social action and understanding.

#### OVERVIEW OF THE BASIC CURRICULUM

The Burbank district includes nursery school through the twelfth grade, organized as a unified system. The core curriculum on the elementary level includes practically all the experiences in the school situation in which the pupils will participate. In the secondary school, it will on most levels consist of a two-hour basic course. The experiences offered in the core will be supplemented by those which can be offered best in special courses.

The realization of these purposes can only come from offering experiences and devel-

oping understandings on increasingly more complex levels within the major social functions of society. This plan can be pictured with the social functions as the vertical axis and the complex levels as the horizontal axis. The levels are, in our course of study, known as "areas of experience." These areas of experience are the successively complex levels on which understandings and experiences are provided.

#### OVERVIEW OF THE SOCIAL FUNCTIONS

There have been a number of formulations of the major social functions. Among those which are especially noteworthy are the Virginia Formulations,<sup>2</sup> the Texas Plan,<sup>3</sup> the Tentative Proposal in California,<sup>4</sup> and the one of Hanna.<sup>5</sup>

A comparison with the other proposals shows that all of them are practically constant, with small variations which can be traced to differences in thinking of the members of the respective groups. After a careful study of the available formulations, the Curriculum Commission selected the following ten as more important. These functions are relatively constant. Man has always engaged in these activities—and will always do so.

**PRODUCTION**—Production of goods and services by society for its members.

**DISTRIBUTION**—Distribution of the results of production by society to its members.

**CONSUMPTION**—Consumption of the results of production by members of society.

**COMMUNICATION**—Development and utilization of communication facilities.

**TRANSPORTATION**—Development and utilization of transportation facilities.

<sup>2</sup> *Tentative Course of Study for the Core Curriculum of Virginia Secondary Schools*, Richmond, Virginia; State Department of Education, 1935, pp. 16-19.

<sup>3</sup> *Tentative Course of Study for Years One through Six*. Austin, Texas, State Department of Education, 1936, p. 145.

<sup>4</sup> Helen Heffernan, "Second Report of Committee on Scope and Sequence of Major Learnings in the Curriculum," *California Schools*, Vol. VII, July 1936, pp. 216-232.

<sup>5</sup> Paul R. Hanna, "Developing a 'Sequence' with Social Rootage," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. XI, October 1936, pp. 375-379.

**PROTECTION AND CONSERVATION**—Protection and conservation of life, property, and natural resources by society.

**LEISURE TIME**—Utilization and enjoyment of leisure time.

**AESTHETICS**—Expression and appreciation of aesthetic values.

**ETHICS**—Development and expression of ethical living.

**EDUCATION**—Development and functioning of education for abundant living.

#### OVERVIEW OF AREAS OF EXPERIENCE

The areas of experience selected deal with those factors which exert significant influences on the functions of society, and which enable the pupil to understand and participate in those functions on his level of maturity.

The sequence is a broad outline only. It should not be thought of as a delimiting factor for the student, or as in any way making it impossible for him to follow his developing interests. Flexibility and variation should occur within the general boundaries of the given area.

The word "adaptation" is used in the following sequence, not in its usual definition of "conformity," but in its much larger meaning of "change in the situation as well as change in the individual." The emphasis is on an analysis of the situation to determine in what way it can be improved to lead to a fuller individual or group life.

Within these areas, units of work are selected in which experiences are offered that it is hoped will lead to the realization of our ideal—an intelligent, critical citizen.

The sequence from the nursery school through the twelfth grade is as follows:

#### ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: FIRST FOUR YEARS

##### ADAPTATION OF LIVING WITHIN THE IMMEDIATE ENVIRONMENT

<i>Nursery and Kindergarten:</i>	Adaptation of the individual to group life.
<i>First Year:</i>	Adaptation of the individual to home and school life.
<i>Second Year:</i>	Adaptation of the individual to community life.

#### ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: LAST FOUR YEARS

##### ADAPTATION OF LIVING TO THE BROADER ENVIRONMENT

<i>Third Year and First Part of Fourth Year:</i>	Adaptation of peoples of various cultures to contrasting environments.
<i>Second Part of Fourth Year:</i>	Adaptation of life to environmental influences in California.
<i>Fifth Year:</i>	Adaptation of life to environmental influences in the United States.
<i>Sixth Year:</i>	Relation of certain cultural phases, past and present, to our living.

#### JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

##### ADAPTATION OF LIVING THROUGH SCIENTIFIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT AND THROUGH NATURE

<i>Seventh Year:</i>	Effects of man's use of nature through inventions and discoveries in the modification of his environment.
<i>Eighth Year:</i>	Effects of industrial development upon living.
<i>Ninth Year:</i>	Effects of social provisions upon living.

#### SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

##### ADAPTATION OF THE INDIVIDUAL IN THE EVOLVING AND CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY

<i>Tenth Year:</i>	Adaptation of the individual to evolving society through the development of cultural influences.
<i>Eleventh Year:</i>	Adaptation of the individual to the complex influences of modern democratic society.
<i>Twelfth Year:</i>	Emerging problems of an international scope relating to advancement of human welfare and happiness.

#### WHITHER HISTORY

Many persons in studying the sequence would feel that history had been eliminated in the curriculum. Such is not the case. It is true, however, that a different approach has been made.

The critic would claim that the pupil would complete such a sequence with no

understanding or appreciation of the American heritage. The difficulty in the past has been that history as it has been taught has not developed such appreciations. It is felt that the approach through present problems of living with history being utilized to show trends and realizations will result in a more complete understanding on the part of the child.

There are several reasons, psychological and social, which guarantee the soundness of the approach through problems of living.

In the first place, children are concerned chiefly with the present. "What is" is real to them, whereas "what *has been*" is of greater interest to the mature scholar.

Further, children bring some first-hand experience to the solution of a present problem, whereas the approach to past problems must be wholly vicarious.

Children can and do feel a concern for the solution of a present problem—they identify themselves with it, and it matters to them how it is solved. Such a situation is difficult to obtain in dealing with problems that have already been solved by other people, many or all of whom may be dead. This concern for the solution of a problem is known as readiness—according to psychologists it guarantees economical and lasting learning.

And finally the current problems of living which children are facing today are unique in the experience of the race, for we are undergoing a change from a world dependent upon human energy to a world utilizing non-human energy to meet its needs. Studying the dead past, as such, will be of little help in solving these problems.

All this does not mean that the past is not studied at all. It only implies a new method of attack. Instead of learning volumes about the past in the hope that it will someday be useful in solving or throwing light upon a real problem, the student will *begin* with his problem. He will learn the techniques of research—of finding, with a minimum of time wasted, those episodes of

history which bear a causal or evolutionary relationship with the present problem. In this way history becomes a living, vitally helpful thing instead of a mind-crushing load of facts which often stifles rather than aids clear thinking.

#### EVALUATION OF THE SEQUENCE

The value of any sequence is conditioned by two factors: (1) Do the experiences which are offered in it correspond to the maturity levels of the child, his growing interests, needs and levels of understanding? (2) Does it cumulatively result in increasing understandings and consideration of the social scene?

Much care has been taken to make teachers conscious of the problems peculiar to different maturity levels. Much of the necessary adaptation to such levels must be made by the teacher's approach to the unit. Perhaps one of the best illustrations is between the ninth-year approach and the eleventh-year approach. In the ninth year, teachers are attempting to make pupils conscious of what agencies are functioning in our modern society, and how they are functioning. In the eleventh-grade level the emphasis is more one of a critical evaluation, the strengths and shortcomings of these agencies as they function in our modern society.

The sequence as outlined provides opportunities to arrive at the desired social understandings. The emphasis through the second grade deals with the relation of the child to his immediate environment, taking him from his contact with other children to the contacts with community life.

The next four years is devoted to developing an understanding of the broader environments which are vital to him; how peoples of other cultures adapt to contrasting environments; environmental influences affecting life in California and the United States.

On the sixth-grade level, the emphasis is placed on the distinctly human and so-

cial phases of certain agencies as contrasted to the economic and industrial development, which is left to secondary schools. On this level will be studied such units as History of Records, Tongues of Man, Homes, Clothing and others in this area.

The emphasis on the junior-high-school level is on man's change from sole utilization of human energy to the utilization of non-human energy to meet his needs. The seventh grade emphasizes the inventions and discoveries which have brought about this change. The eighth develops an understanding of the implications of these changes upon living. The ninth grade deals with social provisions which are present today as a result of such a change.

The senior high school is vitally concerned with the individual's relation to this contemporary society on an ever-enlarging scope. The tenth grade deals with the cultural influences of life today. The eleventh grade is concerned with the vital problems and complex influences of a modern democratic society. The first half of the twelfth year deals with problems of an international

scope. In the last half of the twelfth year, experimentation is at present being carried on with a course in direct adjustment of the individual to his immediate problems when he leaves school. This course attempts to orient the student in the situations which he will meet when he leaves school, such as other educational institutions or vocational possibilities.

#### A FINAL WORD

The necessity for a continuous program directed toward the development of social understanding on the part of boys and girls led to a reorganized program. The core of the reorganization includes the functions of society as constant threads. These run through a sequence which provides opportunities for the development of understandings by the pupils on increasingly complex levels.

With such a program of education it is hoped to graduate students who more nearly approximate the ideal as stated by Kilpatrick than was done under the traditional subject matter approach.

### A Youth

By RUBY MAE JONES

A manly youth he is  
In height and weight,  
Hardly fourteen years of age,  
Yet here of late  
He must write long themes  
On vital problems of the world.  
I watch him work, this youth  
Manly only in height and weight,  
For in his eyes I see a trace,  
A glimpse I know as his baby face.



# GUIDANCE

By CECIL WINFIELD SCOTT

## *in Westchester County* CAMPS

THE INCREASING emphasis placed by summer camps upon character development indicates a growing appreciation of the individual needs of campers.

Guidance in camp may be defined broadly as the promotion of satisfying and desirable growth of personality. To this end the camp guidance service, whether it functions as a separate activity or not, attempts to bring about happy, successful living in camp, and to develop integrations which will result in increasingly satisfactory adjustments on the part of campers to their home environments.

The techniques used, focusing attention as they do upon each camper, both as an individual and in his relation to the group, are designed to reveal his particular characteristics and to make possible intelligent action in the light of his needs.

Westchester County Recreation Commission Camps, Harmon-on-Hudson, New York, have recognized for at least ten years<sup>1</sup> that they have a distinct responsibility for providing the kinds of educational experiences which will contribute most to the desirable personal development of children. These camps are operated as part of a countywide recreational program, and, although open to the general public at a low tuition rate, they care mainly for under-

privileged children. Social welfare agencies send these children to the camps for periods of two or four weeks, as a rule, but occasionally for six or eight weeks.

In an effort to make guidance more effective, the camps created, four summers ago, a separate guidance department, or activity, and entrusted to special workers the educational and administrative responsibility for guidance. An increased guidance consciousness on the part of all camp workers and general improvement in guidance results have seemed to accrue from the change of procedure.

The guidance program at the camps has been conceived as embracing all activities, the unorganized as well as the organized, and the fundamental units in this program have been recognized as cabin and activity counseling. It has been strongly held that if guidance is to be intelligent and effective, it must be given when opportunity offers or when it can be created naturally by counselors who associate frequently and closely with campers.

The function of the guidance department has been that of serving as an educational and directing agency, striving to help counselors to appreciate objectives and to be reasonably adept with techniques, unifying the work with each camper, and assisting with individual problems.

To achieve its primary goal—promotion of happy, successful living on the part of campers—the guidance program established the following specific secondary objectives:

1. To collect as much information as possible concerning the physical condition and habits

<sup>1</sup>The camps were organized in 1925, but their present educational policy was not adopted until 1927.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Most high-school educators have a definite interest in the educational aspects of the summer camps which their pupils attend. The author is associate professor of school administration, University of Nebraska. He has been dean of boys in a large high school and principal of a senior high school. During three successive summers he developed the camp guidance program described in this article.*

of campers, their social development, and their personality traits.

2. To use all such information in making important decisions affecting campers and in guiding campers toward those experiences which seem to promise the greatest benefit.
3. To embody all information gained by direct observation of campers in detailed comprehensive reports to social agencies, in the case of "organization" campers, and to parents, in the case of private campers.

The procedures of the guidance program are as follows:

#### A. COLLECTION OF DATA

Camp records for previous seasons and reports from social-welfare agencies are the sources which ordinarily contribute first to the development of funds of information about individual campers. The camp maintains a file of reports on campers which correspond in a sense to the cumulative individual pupil records kept by schools. When a camper returns for a second or third season, the camp capitalizes for guidance purposes whatever information it has on file concerning the camper. Social-welfare agencies usually present reports covering the health, family background, and personalities of their campers when they bring them to camp. Parents of campers who pay their own way are requested to send to the camps reports on their children, and any parents who come to camp are interviewed, either formally or informally, if an opportunity occurs or can be arranged.

The second source of information about campers, and the most important, is the observations made by regular counselors in their many contacts with campers. As organized activity directors, counselors are expected to record daily the things which campers do and their characteristic conduct in organized activities. As heads of cabin groups, living intimately with seven or eight campers, they are expected to make notes frequently about the physical and social adjustment to camp of members of their groups and about incidents which reveal personality traits and problems.

Since the camps are organized on a free activity basis, the recording of what campers do is essential both for determining the degree to which the activity program is succeeding and for providing a factual basis for activity guidance. Data recorded by counselors as cabin heads contribute to both activity and personality guidance, but are of chief value for the latter.

Observations of special camp employees, particularly health workers and guidance counselors, comprise the final important source of information about campers. Health workers keep accurate records of health examinations and treatments, and make some notes concerning the behavior of campers.

Guidance counselors have neither regular cabin nor organized activity duties, consequently they are in a position to become acquainted with all campers. These counselors cover the camp grounds during organized activity periods and work with inactive or passive campers. They visit the various organized activities to observe campers. And they rotate among the cabins and the tables in the dining hall, substituting for counselors who are off duty. By constant, persistent effort they come to know practically all campers.

#### B. USE OF DATA

Records and reports accumulated by the time campers arrive in camp are used in assigning campers to cabins and in helping counselors become acquainted with their cabin groups. Guidance counselors are responsible for cabin assignments and transfers. They make original assignments on the basis of chronological age, weight, and height data, and social development as far as this can be ascertained. Cabin transfers occur infrequently, but are made when it appears that campers are misfits or that counselors are unable to cope with the problems involved.

Cabin counselors study the early-obtained records and reports on their respective groups under the supervision of the guid-

ance counselors. It is considered undesirable to allow the cabin counselors access to these materials until they have associated with their groups several days and probably have formed opinions about them.

Under the leadership of the guidance counselors, all information on campers is pooled and is used for activity and personality guidance while the campers are in camp. Data concerning the participation of campers in organized activities reveal significant facts about the nature and extent of campers' interests, and enable regular and guidance counselors to proceed intelligently in their efforts to guide campers toward activities which seem to promise the greatest value. Inactive or passive campers are regarded as challenges to all camp workers, but the guidance counselors have more time than anyone else to devote to them.

Personality guidance is, of course, part and parcel of the whole camp set-up; it is inherent in all conscious contacts of campers with counselors and with camp activities. Guidance counselors work through the regular counselors as far as possible, using staff conferences and chance and planned interviews to help them become more proficient in observing campers and in interpreting and using their observations. Since the guidance counselors have some acquaintance with all campers, they have a background for evaluating conclusions of counselors, for making recommendations, and also for individual work with campers. Except for acquaintance contacts, guidance counselors confine their work with individual campers to those who present specific behavior problems.

The final use to which the information concerning a given camper is put is that of preparation of a somewhat comprehensive case-history type report.

### C. PREPARATION OF INDIVIDUAL REPORTS

Near the end of each camp period, organized-activity and cabin counselors and the health department make summary re-

ports to the guidance counselors on campers who are scheduled to leave.

The activity reports appraise the proficiency and progress of campers in activities, indicate the nature and degree of participation, and in many cases show the characteristic behavior of campers in activities. Reports from cabin counselors cover the physical and social adaptation of campers to camp, summarize personality traits and problems, and reveal either directly or indirectly the direction which further work with the child should take.

Health reports show mainly the campers' health records and needs as observed by the health department.

Guidance counselors supervise the preparation of summary reports by counselors and are responsible for their final form. They review all reports, editing and supplementing where necessary, and have them typed in triplicate. One copy of each report is filed by the camp and, in the case of social-agency campers, the remaining two are sent to the sending social agency. It is known that the social agencies will use one copy of each report and it is thought that they may in some instances wish to place the other with schools which the campers attend.

An assumption that parents are less capable of interpreting reports than are social-agency workers is responsible for a policy which requires that reports on private campers be worded more carefully than other reports and that only one copy of each report be mailed to parents.

### RESULTS

The most obvious and tangible outcome of the guidance program has been the case-history type of individual reports, which improved remarkably during the first three seasons. Naturally, these reports have no intrinsic value. They are important only as they reveal adaptation and growth of campers, and ability and interest of counselors in the stimulation of desirable personality growth, and as they furnish a basis for

further constructive work with the youngsters after they leave camp, or during subsequent camp seasons.

An intrinsically valuable result has been the development of an increased guidance consciousness on the part of all camp workers, much credit for which is doubtless due the educational activities of the special guidance counselors. In addition to their educational and administrative contributions, the guidance counselors have performed a useful function in working with children in need of special attention.

The most important outcome, and the most difficult to measure, has been the production of desirable changes in the lives of individuals. Camp workers feel that such changes are produced and this belief is supported by the confidence which social-agency workers have in the program. Some idea of the extent to which the guidance program does produce desirable personality integration may be obtained from the following case study.

#### LARRY

Larry was first sent to camp at age fifteen by a social welfare agency which hoped that camp experience would help solve deepseated personality problems that, to a large extent, had their origin in poor home conditions and unsatisfactory school work.

The eldest of seven children in a family that had been on and off relief for five to six years, he was considered less capable than his brothers and sisters and was rather unhappy in his home relationships. The social agency became interested in the boy when he was referred to a special guidance clinic because of school difficulties. Left-handed and a poor reader, Larry had become self-conscious and had developed a speech defect.

He scored low on reading and intelligence tests and did poor work in all school subjects which required reading; on mechanical tests, he made excellent scores. Unsuccessful in school, small for his age, and taunted by his schoolmates, he had come to hate his teacher and to dislike everything connected with school.

The social agency arranged for Larry to be transferred to an opportunity class in which mechanical abilities were stressed and suggested to him

soon after the transfer was made that he might go to camp the following summer. This idea appealed to Larry and was used by an understanding teacher in planning his school activities. Through opportunities to express himself in school and the prestige which he was able to win for himself among his classmates because of camp, Larry lost much of his dislike for school and some of his inferiority feeling.

At home, conditions changed for the better. Larry's father reported to the social agency that the boy improved "one hundred per cent" during the month following the suggestion that he go to camp and expressed pleased surprise over his new realization that Larry was not "so dumb." He appeared happy at home and willingly accepted responsibility for getting himself ready for camp.

Larry's first season in camp was successful from practically every angle. He was a well-adjusted, coöperative, enthusiastic camper who showed keen interest in overnight camping and who evidenced above-average capacity for assuming responsibility.

As soon as he returned home, the social agency began intelligent follow-up work, encouraging him to talk of his camp experiences, of his ambition to become a counselor's assistant and perhaps, in due time, a counselor. Larry felt better about returning to school because he now knew that he was "good for something." His teacher felt that she did not need to protect him so much and Larry responded well to this, making some little headway in academic work. He showed interest in magazines which treat science subjects in a popular way and tried to read them. He became the leader of a group of his schoolmates, took them on hikes, and interested them in a number of wholesome things.

His second season in camp was even more successful than the first. He adjusted quickly to the physical and social situations of camp, was used during his four-weeks stay as an assistant by the overnight camping counselor, and became a promising candidate for a junior life-saving certificate. He left camp at the end of this season a much better integrated personality than he had been when camp first entered his life.

This case study shows how the camp and interested agencies in the home environments of campers work coöperatively on problems. Although one of the most successful records on file at the camps, it is nevertheless illustrative of many which indicate that the guidance program functions effectively in Westchester County Camps.



# "Finding a Job" Unit in English Develops GRADUATION THEME

By HELEN R. LONG

KEEN interest on the part of forty-nine eighth-grade pupils in a "finding a job" unit in Literature, and a desire on the part of the sponsors of the group to plan a worthwhile program for their graduation exercises, resulted in a program which was of great benefit to the pupils and of intense interest to their parents and friends. This program was given last year in the Bensenville Public Schools, Bensenville, Illinois.

When "choosing a career" was decided upon as the theme of the program, ten pupils, who could be depended upon to take responsibility and speak well before an audience, were arbitrarily chosen by their teachers. These names were then presented to the class and five of the ten were eliminated. Of the remaining five, one was chosen chairman. The proposed program was explained and the pupils were asked to indicate the vocation in which they were most interested.

This was at least three months before promotion time. It is worth noting that not until after the five speakers had been elected was the chosen occupation of each member of the class known to the teachers and the pupils.

After the speakers had been chosen, the whole class began to study possible careers



EDITOR'S NOTE: *A three-months' vocational unit in literature, which was pointed toward a climactic flowering in the graduation exercises of the class, is explained in this article. The author is now a teacher in the Park School, Cleveland, Ohio. Last year she taught the unit explained in this article, in Bensenville, Illinois.*

and vocations. During the greater part of this period of study, there was no more emphasis placed upon the work of the speakers than upon the work of any other member of the group. One of the motives behind the program was that of establishing the feeling that every member of the class was participating in it. For that reason, every pupil with the exception of the chairman, whose work required different handling, received equal attention from the sponsors until two weeks before the time set for the program.

We began our study by discussing possible occupations. Pupils who had an ambition were encouraged to tell about it. Those who couldn't choose between two interests were given suggestions to help them decide for themselves which vocation best suited them. Those who had no ambition were the most difficult to help. Their problem was solved finally by eliminating those things they knew they didn't want to do. As the discussion proceeded, it became apparent that most of these youngsters who had no special interests had never thought of the future at all, but before the class had done much work, nearly every one of these undecided pupils had found something he thought he'd like to do.

We did not inquire too closely into why any one of the group was choosing a particular occupation. As the discussion developed, an outline was made. One of its points was "Why am I interested in this occupation?" What each child said was his own business. The sponsors took his word for everything he chose to say.

Wherever books were available, the pupils read them. They talked with people in the field in which their interests lay. They

wrote for booklets from art schools, schools for mechanics, aviation schools, electrical-engineering schools, hospitals, teachers' colleges, and to many other similar institutions, so that they might know as much as possible about their chosen occupation and the training necessary for each. One ambitious girl, who had a strong desire to be a politician, wrote to the White House for help. As they gathered material, they wrote their essays, putting into them everything they had learned from every available source.

The chairman had frequent conferences with the sponsor so that he might feel completely familiar with the whole program. It was his duty to acquaint the audience with the theme of the program and to make it sufficiently intelligible that everyone might understand it and see its value. The village in which these children live is not rich or even moderately rich. There is no public library, and the school library is inadequate. The pamphlets on vocations issued by the University of Chicago were available in the high-school library, but were too difficult for the majority of the children.

It was amazing, however, to see how much material was collected in spite of the lack of specific aids. From the beginning, the sponsors of the class had, besides the above motive, the desire to arouse in these youngsters a consciousness of themselves as individuals with a future.

When each pupil had finished his investigations, he wrote a letter of application asking for a position in the field in which his interest lay, dating it from ten to twenty years ahead. The essay and the letter were then put into an attractive folder, illustrated to indicate the vocation which the essay discussed. The folders were put on display on the night of graduation. Some of the more artistic members of the group made eight large sketches in bold outline, depicting eight different vocations which members of the class had chosen. These posters were used as part of the stage deco-

ration, further to carry out the theme "Choosing a Career."

It was felt that the audience needed more orientation in the subject than the introductory speech by the chairman was likely to give. A search of the educational film libraries was made and Dr. Kitson's film, "Choosing a Vocation," was obtained from the University of Chicago. This film proved to be excellent for our purposes and preceded the talks by the pupils.

The work of investigating their chosen occupations had been so closely connected with their regular routine work in school that there was no self-consciousness left in any of the pupils. The five speakers said what they had to say earnestly, sincerely, and intelligently, and completely won their audience. Those who did not speak were well represented by their essays, which people actually stopped to read as they left the auditorium.

The first speaker, a boy who hopes to be an aviator, explained his interest and displayed a knowledge of the difficulties he would be sure to encounter. The next, a girl with an ambition to be a private secretary, demonstrated her knowledge of the field even to the type of clothing she must wear. The third, a sharp-eyed little fellow, aroused the respect of his listeners no matter what their private opinions might have been, by his very emphatic talk on why he wants to be a missionary. His speech was so earnest that a pastor in the audience made plans immediately to give the youngster some support. The last speaker, the girl who wrote to the White House, spoke with a poise worthy of a much older person and convinced her audience of the sincerity of her interest in politics.

What these youngsters had to say was not told in technical terms. They told, simply, the results of their investigations. They aroused their parents to at least a momentary realization of one very important fact, that they are individuals. It would be too ambitious to hope that many, if any, of the boys and girls of the graduating class, or

their parents, are consciously aware of how much they learned through that program, but it is safe to say that no one of them will forget it.

If the potential missionary turns out to be a waiter, what of it? It may very possibly be that his investigations in the eighth grade will result in more careful study later and the realization that missionary work isn't his field. And so with all of the forty-nine who made studies of possible vocations. Some of them will undoubtedly follow their childhood interests, but if they don't, the time they spent in studying an occupation has not been wasted.

Certainly, they were enabled to consider themselves in what was to most of them an entirely new light. They saw themselves as individuals who would some day be earning their own living. Most of them had thought of the future, of course, but in that vague way we all have of saying or thinking, "Some day I'd like . . ." But when forced to be definite, to find out how much money the preparation for their jobs would cost, where the training was offered, what chance they had of getting the training, etc., the vagueness vanished.

The problem of every child was interesting, but the most unusual study was made by a boy who came to the teacher one day

and said, "How do you get to be president?" The boy was serious and so his teacher explained some of the difficulties, told him of some of the problems of men who had achieved that office, suggested specific things for him to read, and then asked him if he was still interested in that particular vocation. He had shown surprise several times during her explanation, but his answer was in the affirmative.

The interesting thing in the essay which he produced was that the boy gave a severe but honest estimate of himself as a personality and as a possible candidate for the presidency. He showed without question that he not only understood himself, but also understood many of the qualities that make a good executive. The odds are overwhelming against this boy's realizing his ambition, but his study was none the less valuable. He aimed high and he understood himself.

This extreme case all the more forcibly illustrates the fact that the sponsors wanted every member of the group to express himself as an individual in society. It is not too much to hope, we believe, that the "Choosing a Career" program as outlined above has given or will give direction to forty-nine young people. If it does only that, it has been tremendously worth while.

# The Principal's Role in GUIDANCE

By  
CARROLL B. QUAINANCE

**B**EFORE the first steps are taken toward initiating guidance, the principal should take a look at his curriculums. Guidance is not possible where the curriculums are narrow and static.

It must be possible for a student to elect one of a great variety of curriculums which have many required subjects and few electives, or a smaller number of curriculums with a few required subjects and many electives. I personally prefer very few required subjects in a curriculum. In fact, I believe curriculums are unnecessary where an effective program of guidance is in operation. I prefer to stimulate the student to think for himself by including illustrations of good selections made in the past by students with definite goals.

We must not, in considering the attitude towards flexibility, confine our attention to the formal offerings but rather remember that "In general, all those things which the school does, whether they help or hinder boys and girls in experiencing wholesome growth in relation to the environment, con-

stitute the curriculum of the school."<sup>1</sup>

When we have created a "climate" and prepared a "soil" wherein guidance can flourish, the seed may be sown. The teachers must be made to feel a need for guidance, which is easily produced by a study of such things as (1) the reasons for withdrawal of students, (2) reasons for failure, (3) causes of discipline within classes, (4) what students do on leaving school and how it correlates with their school experiences, (5) evidences of bad placement within the school, (6) questions concerning individual differences, intellectually, emotionally, socially, physically, morally, et cetera.

These discussions will arouse individual discussions and enthusiasm leading to individual conferences with the principal, later to committee conferences, and finally to faculty conferences. From these faculty conferences would evolve a committee, perhaps the same one the principal had discussed the matter with previously, which would help find the needs and present a tentative program to the faculty and principal for further modification and evaluation.

This committee, in arriving at its decision, might, in addition to the topics listed above, consider (1) present practice in the guidance movement, (2) listing functions to be performed, (3) the extent to which the guidance function is now being performed, (4) the training usually considered necessary for successful guidance work, (5) the community and school facilities now available for the guidance function.

<sup>1</sup> Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Ill., "Fitting the School to the Pupil." New York: Institute of Educational Research, Division of Field Studies. 1932, Vol. 2, p. 3.

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**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *There was a time when guidance was confined largely to the principal's occasional interviews with problem children. But now that guidance is permeating every part of the modern high-school program, the principal finds himself the head of an extensive, somewhat intricate guidance system. The author of this article, former vice-principal of a high school, and now a graduate student at Teachers College, Columbia University, discusses the guidance problems and duties of the principal.*



It is reasonable to suppose that a program satisfactory to all would grow out of this procedure, or certainly one which required so little modification that no one would find the modifications objectionable.

Let us assume that a program is ready. Then the principal must be sure that tools are available. Money must be procured for a guidance library, for necessary testing materials, and for proper personnel records. I can conceive of no guidance program without these tools for the use of the guidance counselor.

We must realize that in addition to having the coöperation of the teachers, the counselor must be in a position to render a real service, or all of the preparatory work will prove useless and result in irreparable harm to the program.

I do not know that any policy can be established as to the mode of selecting the counselor, but it is reasonable to suppose that the discussions mentioned before will point to the selection of one capable of performing the functions needed. I do believe, however, that a counselor is necessary in any adequate guidance program.

I think that we shall always have specialists on the secondary level; the trouble has been that there have been too many and their specialization has been too narrow. There will undoubtedly result a closer integration in allied subjects—but a complete integration of all subjects on a plane of thought indulged in on the secondary level is an illusion.

We have had the era of the specialist and now the generalist has his day.

I recall Dr. Kilpatrick's reference to the fact that water is an emergent from hydrogen and oxygen, but that no amount of study of the elements would tell you about the whole. Scientists study the whole and the elements, not one to the exclusion of the other. I might just as well say that no amount of study of water would ever have resulted in a discovery of "heavy water."

Life consists of analysis and synthesis,

playing one upon the other. Newton showed us this in the discovery of calculus. The emphasis on the individual is itself a kind of disintegration, because society is a composite of individuals qualitatively different from those who form the composite. The counselor offers the same balance to secondary education that the philosopher offers to higher education. He is the prime integrator of our program.

I can see just as much danger in education's being controlled by a group specializing in being generalists as by a group specializing in being specialists. The specialist is reluctant to coördinate, because then he fails to remain a specialist, and also has less time for his specialization, which he needs and should have. He is inclined to sacrifice the whole to the part. But the generalist is serving his proper function when he coördinates for the specialist.

This view makes it imperative that the secondary school have one who serves the functions of the guidance counselor.

With a guidance counselor ready to function, it becomes the principal's responsibility to see that the proper allocation of function is provided. I shall assume that the major guidance functions are to be performed through three agencies at least, the homeroom, the classroom, and the counselor himself. These functions should not conflict with, but should supplement one another. Allen<sup>2</sup> has expressed the various functions rather adequately under a chart called "Screening the Guidance Functions":

*Guidance Functions of Each Subject Teacher:*

1. Arouse interests and develop right attitudes.
2. Stress occupational information of the subject.
3. Arrange try-out projects in the subject.
4. Encourage and develop special abilities.
5. Remedial instruction in subject handicaps.
6. Head a club or activity.
7. Coöperate with adviser and homeroom teachers.

<sup>2</sup> Allen, Richard D., *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education*. New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1934 (facing p. 118).

*Guidance Function of Each Homeroom Teacher:*

1. Helpful, friendly, personal interest in each pupil.
2. Orientation in school life and routine.
3. Records, reports, and attendance.
4. Develop school citizenship, leadership and personality.
5. Coöperate with advisers and subject teachers.

*Guidance Functions of the Class Advisers:*

1. Personnel records and research in individual differences and adjustments.
2. Individual counseling and adjustment.
3. Orientation instruction—educational, vocational and social problems.
4. Follow-up of all pupils.
5. Utilization and coöperation with special services.

It should be emphasized that the counselor contacts all the students, and not alone those who seem to be poorly adjusted. Why should we demand that a student show symptoms of mal-adjustment before he receives his rightful consideration?

Among the special services which are sometimes available may be mentioned (1) health services, (2) attendance, (3) home visitors, (4) psychological and testing services, (5) psychiatric, and (6) special placement services. However, all of these clear through the office of the counselor, who is constantly aware of the adjustments made and to be made.

The principal's task is not ended when the program is working smoothly. He is still responsible for seeing that flexible curriculums and extra-curricular programs are developed or improved. The whole curriculum

must be an evolving program which changes with the changing needs of the pupil population. The principal and the counselor must coöperate in the in-service training of those performing the guidance function. He must provide time for the discharge of the functions assigned to the staff members.

As the executive head, the principal will remain responsible for the major problem cases of the school. The guidance program is not a device for lightening the principal's program—but rather one for enlightening it.

It is important to recall that the prime function of the principal is to create an environment wherein guidance can flourish. Guidance of the most expert nature could not function in some secondary schools as now administered. Coöperation is like the ebb and flow of the tide, or, as Dr. McGaughy would say, it must occur on a two-way street; it works from the top down and the bottom up.

Flexibility rather than rigidity must permeate the spirit of the whole school community. Even after a properly-functioning guidance program is inaugurated, the principal is responsible for the supervisory and administrative details which will ensure that the school continues to operate in such a way that boys and girls are enabled to develop those traits of character and those abilities which are not alone likely to contribute to their own welfare, but also to the welfare of the society of which they are a part.

## University Accepts High-School Juniors

The way for high-school juniors to enter the University of Chicago was opened recently when the University Senate approved a report of the College Curriculum Committee establishing a new unit in American education composed of the last two years of high school and the first two years of college.

Graduates of the traditional type of high school will continue to enter the College as usual, and their educational program will be unaffected by the new unit. The curriculum for the last two years of the new four-year College will parallel to a considerable extent that which exists for present university freshmen and sophomores.

# SELF GUIDANCE

By A. Y. MAYNARD

IN MOST high schools, guidance is thought of primarily as help given by a teacher, counselor, or principal to a pupil faced with the need of making a choice. The most important of these choices have to do with:

1. The extent of the student's high-school education.
2. The curriculum he should follow in high school.
3. The kind of occupation he will enter.
4. Whether or not he will go to college.
5. What kind of college he will attend.
6. Starting on his occupational career.

In most high-school guidance programs the emphasis seems to be placed on studying the pupil, assembling information about him, and discussing his choices with him in the light of what is known of him. Adequate information on the entire situation in respect to which the pupil must make a decision is not so readily secured. Few people are able to tell the pupil what he needs to know in order to make his decisions wisely.

It is here contended that a substantial portion of the pupil's high-school experience should deal with these major problems of Education and Occupation in regard to which he must make his choices.

It seems entirely feasible to include in the social studies offered in high school such study of education and occupations in their relations to each other and to contemporary

life as will enable the pupil to be more largely self-directing in making his choices. These subjects should be studied as broad social problems to be examined in the light of social needs and existing conditions.

No narrow or perfunctory consideration of these problems is likely to be effective, but some of the information used should be detailed and specific. For example, those who contemplate going to college should acquire an understanding of the nature and purposes of the various kinds of education offered at the college level. They should secure an adequate understanding of the abilities, interests, motives and plans which they must have in order to profit by what the college has to give. Certainly it seems reasonable to suppose that the information the prospective student acquires about the college he proposes to attend should be as varied and as significant as that which the college requires concerning him.

The importance of the student's assuming some responsibility for his own education and for relating it satisfactorily to his occupational life is so great that he should have frequent opportunities to judge the worth of his high-school work in relation to his future activities, whether educational or occupational.

Exploration and revelation should continue throughout secondary education. The teacher who guides his pupils in their exploration of some new portion of a major field of learning, and assumes responsibility for revealing to them the possibilities for further profitable and interesting work in that field, renders a rare service, but one greatly needed. Such a service may provide suggestion, motive, vision, but it need not lessen at all the pupil's sense of responsibility for choosing, himself, the path which he will follow.

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *While the author believes in guidance, he thinks that pupils should be more self-directing in making their choices . . . that they need a sense of responsibility in choosing their scholastic and vocational paths. Mr. Maynard is principal of the Franklin High School, Highland Park, New Jersey.*

# THE KING'S ENGLISH

By ARTHUR H. LITTLE

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is a condensation of an article that appeared in Printer's Ink, December 17, 1936. The author is associate editor of that magazine.*

I HAD heard him over the air. I had heard an English King explain to his people his renunciation of the British throne.

With his closing words ringing in my ears, I had read his message as it appeared in print. And I thought of how I might write about that message, and share an appreciation of it. Accordingly, I decided to apply contrast. In parallel columns, I should present the King's English as he wrote it and as he might have written it, but, thank

heaven, did not. A sharp object-lesson!

I'd translate the King into goon-talk. I'd burden his thoughts with ponderosity and befog his diction with vagueness. Wherever possible, I'd transpose him into the passive voice, so deeply loved by goons of high and low degree. By causing him to seem impersonal and detached, I'd rob him of honest modesty. By causing him to seek sonorous synonyms for simple concepts, I'd strip him of his courage.

By suggesting how badly the King might have written, I'd demonstrate how well he wrote. (Editor's Note: The following comparison covers only the first part of Edward's address.)

## AS THE KING WROTE:

At long last I am able to say a few words of my own. I never wanted to withhold anything, but until now it has not been constitutionally possible for me to speak.

A few hours ago I discharged my last duty as King and Emperor, and now that I have been succeeded by my brother, the Duke of York, my first words must be to declare my allegiance to him. This I do with all my heart.

You all know the reasons which have impelled me to renounce the throne. But I want you to understand that in making up my mind, I did not forget the country or the Empire which, as Prince of Wales and lately as King, I have for twenty-five years tried to serve.

But you must believe me when I tell you that I have found it impossible to carry the heavy burden of responsibility and to discharge my duties as King as I would wish to do, without the help and support of the woman I love. And I want you to know that the decision I have made has been mine, and mine alone.

## AS HE MIGHT HAVE WRITTEN:

The moment seems ultimately to have arrived when the undersigned, on his own initiative, may issue a statement. At no time have I been inclined to secretiveness, but until now I have been constrained by the Constitution from expressing myself before the forum of public opinion.

A few hours ago I fulfilled my final obligation as King and Emperor—that is to say, as such—and now that it has been called to my attention that the throne has become associated, so to speak, with my brother, the Duke of York, my primary consideration is to make articulate my allegiance to him. The same I do with all the fervor of which I am capable.

You are all apprized of the factors that have prompted me to abjure the highest honor within the gift of the British people. But I desire that there shall be impressed upon you the fact that, in arriving at a decision, I was not unmindful, as it were, of the country or the Empire to which, as Prince of Wales and subsequently as King, I have bent my best efforts to give service.

But you must accord me credence when I state to you that I have found it impossible to endure the heavy burden of responsibility and to consummate the fulfilment of my stewardship as King without the assistance and coöperation of the lady upon whom I have bestowed my affection. And I desire you to be assured that the decision I have arrived at has been reached exclusively by myself, personally and individually.



# WHAT OTHERS SAY

By LAURA TERRY TYLER

THE school year is nearly over. The remaining weeks will be filled with increased activity as preparation is made to measure the results of the building that has been in progress in the classrooms of America. The tools we used were the developing curriculums; the builders were the teacher-leaders; the materials have been our adolescent boys and girls. Regardless of what we may believe, none of the material has been worthless. Character has been in the making. We may well ask ourselves the question, "Have we been artisans or artists?"

*Let us give self-reliance its place.*

## Self-Reliance

In the midst of the vexing problems of unemployment, capital and labor, war and peace, parents seem to have forgotten that many questions of our modern life would be answered if we could solve the knotty problem of how to teach children to stand on their own feet, think their own thoughts, bear the responsibility for their own actions, and shoulder their share of the world's work.

There is an undue amount of whimpering and sniveling and complaining on the part of parents over the predicament into which they imagine their children have fallen. They worry because the family budget has diminished to the point where the youngsters cannot have everything they want dumped into their laps. What the father and mother should be concerned about is the fact that children are human beings, and if all their needs are provided for, they will grow up thinking that the world of men and things is made for their personal convenience. It will not do to sit down and sigh for the good old days or let the matter go. New formulas and new de-

vices must be found for cultivating self-reliance in the boys and girls.

School is good, being a Boy Scout or a Girl Scout is good, the church is good. But none of them nor all of them can be used as a substitute for the home. If the child is not going to move awkwardly through life, if he is to meet crises bravely, get through difficult situations honorably, be a master of circumstances, not their slave, have a creative mind, be mindful of the many human beings who are working for his well-being and comfort—then the parent must teach the child to be sure of himself, but withal to approach life humbly and with the acknowledgment that he is here to give, not to get.—FREDERICK K. STAMM, *Good Housekeeping*, April 1937.

*For parents and teachers to consider:*

## Discipline Is Not Repression

Discipline, thoughtfully and sparingly given, will be, in this law-ridden world, more helpful than hurtful. The child does not need to feel that all your commands are just; he needs only to believe that your experience has given you more wisdom than he has, and that you are trying to use that wisdom for his good. All law is not just, but the citizen who is too rebellious destroys himself.

To the individual, law is often unjust. Stopping at a red light is aggravating when there is no cross traffic; small conventions often wreck our large plans; and there are times when punching the time clock only sets a need to punch the man who first thought of a time clock. That will be the child's lot as it is ours. If he can believe in the basic wisdom of law, if he can fix the habit of obedience to authority that would be just, he will be spared rebellion that is

destructive. He must learn to accept without aggravation discipline that is not pleasing.

It is cheering to know that there is a healthful discipline that will stiffen the child's spirit, not with stubbornness that comes of insecurity, but with self-reliance that comes of knowing the rules, and having confidence in you who umpire the game. Responsibility will grow in the boy or girl when each knows the security of impersonal, consistent discipline, the discipline of the rules of the game that all men are playing. New rules for new generations are made by the young who have played the game fairly under the old rules. Thus, in time, self-control takes the place of law.

With laws entangling our every step, it seems foolish to believe that the child will not have to learn to keep to the right, to march in step with the many people who are going his way.—CLARA B. DEAN, *The American Home*, April 1937.

*Interesting comment on high-school pupils:*

### Pupil Needs Overlooked

It needs hardly more than a cursory examination of the work of the pupils enrolled in almost any large high school to show that there are pupils who are not now profiting in any appreciable measure by the education which the school is providing for them. These pupils tend to fall into two major groups.

There are, first, certain boys and girls who are willing to learn and who are apparently making every effort to do so but who have come to a point beyond which they find it impossible to advance. Schools sometimes overlook the presence of such pupils because promotions are often granted them on the basis of effort alone, irrespective of accomplishment.

Second, there are boys and girls who may be able to learn but who are so lacking in a sense of responsibility for their own edu-

cation that they make practically no effort to profit by their school work. The prevailing notion that any individual possesses the right to as long a period of schooling as he or his parents may wish has much to answer for in this connection.—*Issues of Secondary Education*, Bulletin No. 59 of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, 1936.

*From the pen of one who teaches teachers:*

### School Life as Democratic Experience

The fate of democracy in the schools hangs upon the policy of the state.

The schools of the United States have the *opportunity* of embodying democratic principles in the everyday life of boys and girls.

Those responsible for our schools have been slow to recognize and use their opportunity for developing the social aspect of American education.

For generations most schools in this country have been undemocratic in procedure and unsocial in atmosphere.

When we pause to consider the gap between our democratic principles of government and the unsocial atmosphere of the average school, this lack of relationship is startling. It is surprising that no great concerted effort has yet been made to democratize education in the United States.

A democracy cannot afford to cheapen or narrow its program of public education, for our destiny as a nation rests in the hands of the people.

Most communities have far to go in reshaping their schools to a form that will make social experience an accepted procedure.

Personality ripens best through social adjustment, just as citizenship fulfills itself best in coöperative enterprises for the general welfare.—BERYL PARKER, *School Management*.

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## EDITORIAL

# Creed of a Utopographer

Let me pry loose old walls;  
Let me lift and loosen old foundations.

—CARL SANDBURG

Before I built a wall I'd ask to know  
What I was walling in or walling out.

—ROBERT FROST

1. I conceive education as the natural and inevitable accompaniment of purposive living. I conceive education as an intimate and creative relationship between a purposive man and a stimulating environment. I believe education functions in dynamics, responses, enterprises, and adjustments and must not be conceived as a level or condition of intelligence.

2. I believe that our institutional schools are not at all essential or inevitable agencies of education as a function of life. I believe that our institutional schools are the result of an ecclesiastical practice becoming a civic tradition and a vested interest. I believe that our traditional schools are based upon either the misconception that a miniature of life, a valid microcosm can be created within four walls, or that through magic formulas we can teach living while apart from life itself.

3. I believe that our institutional schools have sought to educate by superimposing artificial grammars upon real language, artificial codes upon real living, and artificial formulas upon real culture.

4. I believe that our traditional schools cannot enrich life, culture, or community because they isolate themselves from life, culture, and the community. They are not avenues of bold entrance, of free criticism, or of courageous exploration, but artificial and conventional breakwaters where the backwash of life's surges form weary pools

for the educational laving of unrefreshed pupils.

5. *I believe in schools.* But I do not believe in the *school stereotype*. I have not yet any plan or chart for the school of the future. But I know that it will not separate pupils from life and living. It will instead be an agency for leading them into the great educational adventure of living purposively, boldly, and vividly. I know that the school of the future will be an exciting area of real living, its curriculums orbits and systems of social culture, its teachers eager companions and guides, and its pupils aspirants toward reality.

6. I believe that our future national economy will afford more young people more years for free education. I do not anticipate with contentment the prospect of having these young people spend extra years in the irrelevant disciplines that comprise our traditional curriculum. I believe we should seek to construct for them a new type of school, an enterprise rather than a tradition, an experiment more than an institution, an experience more than a monastic discipline properly accredited and certificated. To construct such a school we must dare to challenge the loyalties and securities of institutional education.

7. I believe that the school of the future will conceive of character education as a process of adjusting pupils in their highest individual measure to the sanctions, purposes, and aspirations of real democratic culture. Therefore I accept the following as my creed of character education in the schools of my Utopia:

### CHARACTER EDUCATION

A. Character is an individual's response in behavior and attitude to the complex of

values and mores that comprise the culture within which he lives. There is therefore no such entity as absolute character, for character is not a static personality trait, but a dynamic adjustment relative to one's surrounding culture.

B. Character is developed by activity in enterprises and experiences that involve social sanctions, values, and mores. Such investigations as *Studies in Deceit*, by Hartshorne and May show that character adjustment takes place within the mechanism of specific, social action situations.

C. Community life becomes possible only when the educative functions of the community can successfully adjust the character of its members to group values and purposes. Whatever conflicts, tensions, and maladjustments, whether social or individual, arise in the process of group living must be given resolution and accommodation by group concern.

D. But tensions, conflicts, and resistances in the case of individuals who find adjustment difficult, must be resolved not by means of "the ordering and forbidding technique" but by means of providing wise guidance through satisfying experiences to character and personality achievements. Experiences will be satisfying if they make for a fulfillment of our wish organizations.

E. Since knowledge of standards and values is not character, better than a formal program of character education is a program in which all activities, experiences, skills, knowledges, and attitudes are directed toward that integration of individual personality and group life which is essentially human character.

F. Part of the outcome of the character experience in education should be an insight and ability on the part of the pupil to resist and avoid the stimulations of propaganda and advertising that commercial and political agencies will direct toward him. He must understand when such stimulations make for an insecurity of his own personality or of his group culture. *Insight, acceptance or rejection, and action* form the trinity of complete character.

G. Perhaps the greatest problem in character education in a democracy is that of adjusting the individual to the mechanics of democratic leadership. Hence the creative, the experimental, the coöperative, the democratic type of action situations should comprise educational devices. By these the pupil can be challenged to the acceptance of ever higher demands and ideals in leadership.—LEON MONES, head of the English Department, Central High School, Newark, New Jersey.

### Wide Range in Costs Per Pupil

State reports to the Office of Education reveal that in 1934, as in previous years, there was considerable variation among the States in cost per pupil in average daily attendance. Based on current expenses, including interest, the cost per pupil in 1934 ranged from \$24.50 in Mississippi to \$137.69 in New York. The average cost per pupil in the United States was \$73.58. Wisconsin was nearest to the average with a per pupil cost of \$74.87 per year. In 1934 the average cost per elementary-school pupil (22 States reporting) was \$51.98; per junior-high-school pupil (9 States reporting), \$85.39; per junior-senior high-school pupil for 7 States reporting, \$50.94; per senior-high-school pupil for 6 States reporting, \$103.63; per regular 4-year high-school pupil for 19 States reporting, \$94.30.

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## ➤ SCHOOL LAW REVIEW ➤

# May a Statute Modify Tenure?

By DANIEL R. HODGDON, Ph.D., J.D.

NEW JERSEY enacted a statute which permitted the board of education to reduce salaries of teachers who had acquired a tenure status. The board of education of West New York, acting under the provisions of the act (Ch. 12, Laws of 1933) reduced the salaries of all the teachers in the district. The teachers appealed from the decision of the board, and the lower tribunals sustained the action of the board, although admitting that teachers on tenure were under contracts.

The court took the view that the state, as a sovereign power, could amend or modify its own laws. The teachers of West New York appealed to the United States Supreme Court for a writ of certiorari to review the decision of the New Jersey court. The United States Supreme Court granted the writ. The grounds on which the appeal was made were:

1. The act of the legislature of New Jersey in passing a statute lowering the salaries of teachers on tenure was unconstitutional, as impairing the obligation of a new contract.
2. The resolutions of the board of education reducing salaries were void, because they unduly discriminated between persons in the same class of service.
3. That there was no justification for the assumption that there was at the time of the adoption of the resolutions such financial debacle as to justify the passage of the resolutions.

The Supreme Court of the United States in sustaining the right of the legislature to give boards of education the power to reduce salaries of teachers, held that the New Jersey tenure statute established a legislative statutes for teachers, but it did not establish a contractual one that the legislature may not modify. The decision implies that boards of education are without power to change the salary or status of teachers, as this is a matter for the legislature, since the legislature created a legislative status and the members of a board of education are mere agents of the legislature, without any powers except those given them by the statute.

The status of tenure teachers, while in one sense, perhaps, contractual, is, in essence, dependent on a statute, like that of the incumbent of a statutory office, which only the legislature at will may abolish, or whose emoluments it may change. A teacher on tenure is employed only for each current year. The statute creates a mandate of the legislature compelling boards of education to re-employ teach-

ers each year under the conditions fixed by the legislature. The statute is a regulation of the conduct of the board, and not a term of a continuing contract of indefinite duration with the individual teachers. The teacher may terminate the right to re-employment at the end of any year, but the board is without that authority to terminate the teacher's right to tenure re-employment except in the manner provided for in the statute.

*Askam et al. v. Board of Education of the Town of West New York et al.*, 116 N.J.L. 416, 184 Atl. 737, May 14, 1936, Aff. 115 N.J.L. 310, 180 A 220.

*Phelps et al. v. Board of Education of the Town of West New York et al.*, 116 N.J.L. 412, 115 N.J.L. 310, 180 A 220.

*U. S. Supreme Court, Cases Nos. 454, 455, March 1, 1937.*

## Are Oral Contracts Illegal?

A teacher in Indiana served successfully for six years. At an informal meeting of the board she was discharged without notice and without her knowledge. There was no hearing given as provided by statute, nor was she charged with incompetency, insubordination, neglect, or immorality. No steps were taken to rescind her indefinite contract.

The law of Indiana provides that any person who has served or who shall serve under a contract as a teacher in any of the school corporations of the state for five or more successive years, and who shall thereafter enter into a teaching contract for further service with such corporation, shall thereupon become a permanent teacher.

The law of Indiana further provides that (1) all contracts must be in writing, signed by the parties to be charged thereby; (2) a teacher's contract shall provide for the annual determination of the date of the beginning and length of the school terms by the school corporation; (3) the school corporation shall provide a public record of uniform blank contracts carefully prepared and worded by the superintendent of public instruction and cause contract to be signed in said public record.

The board employed the teacher for the first year at a regular meeting, but gave her no contract, as required by statute, stating the date when school would begin, number of months of school or the



total amount of salary to be paid and the number of payments to be made during the year. Since boards of education are special agents possessing statutory powers only, and are without general authority to bind the school corporation, they can act only as the statute authorizes them to act, and in the manner prescribed.

All who deal with school boards do so at their peril, and must take notice of the extent of their authority. Where a statute prescribes a mode of exercising a power, that mode must be adopted, for there is no inherent right of discretion for corporate bodies such as school corporations. Teachers contracting with boards of education are bound to take notice that the boards' powers are limited by law.

This is an excellent example of loss sustained by a teacher due to lack of knowledge of an educational legal principle of law which should have been known by the teacher.

No teacher should enter the professional duties of teaching without knowing the philosophy of the Education Law and the important principles involved. The rule of law stated here applies equally in all states. Ignorance of the fundamental legal principles of School Law is never excusable, but the lack of knowledge of these educational principles lies chiefly at the door of teacher-training institutions. *Board of School Commissioners of the City of Indianapolis v. State ex rel Wolfolk; Ind. 199 N.E. 569.*

### Tenure Contracts Require Formal Action

The statute provides that every employee of a school district of any type or class, having an average daily attendance of less than 850 pupils, who, after having been employed by the district for three complete consecutive school years in a position, or positions, requiring certification qualifications, and is reelected for the next succeeding school year to a position requiring certification qualifications, may be classified by the governing board of the district as a permanent employee of the district.

If said classification is not made, the employee shall not attain permanent status, and may be reelected from year to year thereafter without becoming a permanent employee until said classification is made. Where daily attendance is greater than 850, a teacher upon being employed for the fourth year automatically becomes a permanent teacher.

A teacher had taught successfully for four years. The district had three trustees. After teaching two years the teacher was given a contract by the trustees in which she was classified as a permanent teacher. The trustees had no regular meeting for two years

thereafter, but conferred unofficially and agreed orally to employ the teacher. After she had so taught for four years, the school board met and voted to dispense with the services of the teacher, evidently feeling no moral obligation for the services rendered successfully to the school district, and for the action of the prior board which had declared her a permanent teacher.

The same old rule applies here that has been applied many times. Informal agreements of members of a school board outside of regular school board meeting is ineffectual and would naturally confer no permanent status or other status upon a teacher.

Teachers are under obligation to see that all contracts, agreements, or other acts are official acts done at a school-board meeting, legally called. A valid contract with a teacher cannot be made by members of a school board without a meeting and formal action. A formal action of the board taken prior to the end of the statutory requirement for a probationary period would confer no permanent status on the teacher. *Barnhardt v. Gray et al., Cal. 56 P (2nd) 254 (March 26, 1936).*

### Circumventing Tenure Law

A teacher was asked to resign as a condition of re-employment in pursuance of a policy of the board to circumvent the tenure law.

In California the statute provides that school districts with an average attendance of less than 850 pupils may classify a teacher as permanent after three years of service, but that such classification is optional with the boards. In other words, it is not mandatory for school districts of this size to give teachers tenure. The court said that doubtless the board intended to avail themselves of this optional provision of this statute and to avoid any possible carrying over of permanent employees. The teacher would have been dismissed if she had not resigned.

The teacher did not establish any fraud, duress, or intent on the part of the board to defeat the purpose of the law. The record shows that she acquiesced in the request, resigned without protest and applied for re-employment without asserting any tenure rights. Under such circumstances her resignation must be held to have terminated any prospective permanent status based on past service.

It is to be noted that when tenure is mandatory upon the board, a resignation demanded by the board to circumvent the tenure law is of no effect. *Montgomery v. Board of Education, 137 California Appeals 668, 31 P (2nd) 243. Merman v. Calistoga Joint Union High School District, et al. California 55 P (2nd) 195.*

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# BOOK REVIEWS

PHILIP W. L. COX, *Review Editor*

*Methods of Teaching in Junior and Senior High Schools*, by EARL R. GABLER and ROBERT W. FREDERICK. New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1937, 202 + vi pages, \$1.55.

The original edition of this guide-work book in methods appeared in 1933. The present revised edition is quite similar to the original in both form and general content. Thirty-five units covering the two major fields of method (general factors in the teaching process and methods of teaching) are set up so as to provide (1) a brief outline of the subject matter of the unit, (2) a suggestive set of questions and problems, and (3) an extensive bibliography. The bibliographies for the several units and the general bibliography at the back are brought up to date, with many valuable references added.

A significant feature of this new edition is the enlarged introductory section on "Suggestions to Instructor and Students." Here the authors have developed at some length a series of suggestions for using the blank pages, which, if carried out by anyone using the book, should make it a real guide book and a valuable compendium on methods. One of the most striking suggestions is that on the "functionalizing" of ideas, by causing the student "to associate and integrate principles of methods with articles and illustrations from newspapers and magazines, and with notes, drawings, ideographs, and diagrams of his own creation." The suggestion has real merit.

This guide book should prove to be a worthwhile adjunct to any general methods course in the secondary area.

GLENN S. THOMPSON

*Problems of the Teacher in the New Secondary School* (Previews and Guide Sheets for the Study of the Extra-Instructional Activities of the Secondary-School Teacher), by N. WILLIAM NEWSOM and FORREST E. LONG. New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1937. 211 + xvii pages, \$1.55.

Those acquainted with the wide acceptance—or those who have made use—of *Problems of the Teacher in the New Secondary School* by N. William Newsom, will be pleased to note the improvement made in the revised edition by Newsom and Long. The authors have critically evaluated, extensively revised and rewritten the new edition—bringing the bibliographies up-to-date, reorganizing and expanding the discussion questions and problems to include:

Homerooms, Core Curriculums, Sectioning of Classes, State Prescriptions, Student Activities, Current Issues, and other contemporary social and educational problems pertaining to the institutional life of the modern high school.

The new units, IX on "Teacher Responsibility for Professional Growth" and X on the "Secondary School of the Future," clearly and forcefully indicate the attempt of the school to perceive and keep abreast of the everchanging social, political, and economic scene of the community.

The Revised Edition will surely receive deserved recognition from those seeking a guide and workbook for Secondary Education courses in teachers colleges and schools of education in colleges and universities.

L. B. GRAYBEAL

*Secondary School Teaching*, by J. G. UMSTATTD. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1937, 459 pages.

The author, who is Associate Professor of Secondary Education, Wayne University, and Supervisor in Secondary Education, Detroit Public Schools, has prepared an excellently organized and clearly written volume for teacher-training classes. The introduction is devoted to the problems that face the teacher, his activities and needs. Division I deals with pre-instructional problems; Division II, with procedures involving the unit idea; Division III, with additional classroom procedures; Division IV, with associated activities of the teacher. Each chapter is preceded by a list of topics to be included in it and a brief statement of its purpose; it is followed by selected references for further study.

*Functions of Secondary Education*. Report of the Committee on Orientation of Secondary Education, Chicago: Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association. H. V. CHURCH, Executive Secretary. 226 pages, \$1.10.

In January, 1936, the Committee on Orientation published its final report on the Issues of Secondary Education, the conflicts of theory with theory and of theory with practice. The present report deals with the second matter of fundamental importance which the committee has been studying. Ten functions are stated which are in greater or lesser degree responsibilities of the secondary schools.

Five values, it is hoped, may result from this statement of functions and of the discussion that

may ensue. These values will be created as answers to the following questions are sought: What administrative units are needed to contribute most to the "gradual, continuous, unitary process" of education? What philosophy of education should the profession develop that would be adequate for the secondary school? What are the criteria by which secondary schools should be judged? What new programs or organizations, what administration procedures and curriculum constructions are needed within schools to enable them to carry out the agreed-upon functions? How can the secondary school best articulate its own program and purposes with those of other institutions?

The functions stated and elaborated in this report are those which Briggs had already set down in his "Secondary Education." Each function has been explained and defended by one member of the committee. This distribution of services has the strengths and the shortcomings of independent work. On the one hand, it presents clearly the results of each individual's thinking, undiluted by conference and compromise. On the other hand, it inevitably invokes repetition and duplication—a shortcoming that is, indeed, inherent in the functions themselves.

Doubtless, busy men could not have worked out a fresh statement of functions in the brief time at their disposal. The outcome of the procedure that was

adopted, however, precluded the introduction of any fresh thinking. In a period that has involved so many challenges for the secondary school, that has seen so many very significant experiments and adventures in attempting to service adolescent youths and the world in which they are so often maladjusted, it is disappointing to find this report to be the mere rationalization of a set of functions already stated.

Many of the contributors to this volume have proved themselves to be bold pioneer thinkers and builders. Little of their true selves, however, appears in their discussions on this report. Tiny suggestions of tiny amelioration do not satisfy the need of the day for vigorous and radical reconstruction.

*Youth Welfare in Germany*, by JOHN W. TAYLOR. Nashville: The Baird-Ward Company, 1936, 259 pages.

In America all thoughtful men are conscious of the social emptiness that characterizes the minds of most adults and youths. Some may defend this state of affairs in the belief that social criticism is destructive and that personal adjustment is healthier and more normal if the contest of events is left either to chance or to those vigorous men who enjoy manipulating social forces. They believe that since there is really nothing that the common man can

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do that has any assurance of improving the social-economic conditions to which he must adapt himself, he had better take them and like them.

Others may not only regret the sterility of the purposes and cogitations of the majority of adults and youths, but they may endeavor to stab them awake by rebuke or by challenges. Such efforts even in America tend to reflect the biases of more or less homogeneous adult groups. Nationalism, religious sectarianism, courtesy, safety, charity, and athletic victories typify the rather narrow goals sought by these groups.

In Germany adult bodies have set up objectives for youth, have enlisted a great majority of these youths to cooperate in achieving these objectives. How this has been done under the National Socialist régime is set forth in this book by Doctor Taylor. Following a brief introduction and historical orientation, the author explains, in turn, (1) Organization, Support, and Activities of the State Youth Welfare Agencies, (2) The Activities, Training, Appointment, Tenure, and Salary of the State Jugendpflege Workers, (3) Organization and Activities of the Hitler-Youth, (4) Physical Education: Organization and Activities; Other Youth Welfare Activities, (5) Youth and Unemployment, (6) Youth, Politics, Home and School, and (7) Youth and Law. In his concluding chapter, Doctor Taylor discusses the broader implications of youth welfare in Germany and the underlying principles. In the appendix are translations of the official documents involved.

The meticulous care with which the German leaders have provided for every step and aspect of youth care and education and the coordination of the many services that have been established are most impressive. That the purposes of all of these provisions for youth are in many cases quite abhorrent to Americans must not blind us to the fact that we have no plan and very little consciousness of the problems that face youths in our society. It is not by neglect and evasion but only by equally fundamental thinking and planning for our own youths that we can justify the "American way."

*The Campus and Social Ideals*, by HAROLD S. TUTTLE. New York: The author, 1936, 88 pages.

What social ideas and ideals are characteristic of college youths, and how are they affected by the personal, incidental, and institutional contacts that they make in college? To discover the efficacy of these influences in changing the social ideals of students should throw light on their importance in character formation.

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in social-mindedness. These tests he then gave to students in four colleges of varying sizes and characters, one form early and the other form late in the year. Having ascertained the changes (expressed quantitatively) that took place, he worked out the relationships between the changes and eleven factors that might be partial causes of such changes, including intelligence, religious affiliations, instructors, independent reading, and living conditions.

How valid the tests and how clearly the various influences have been isolated from each other for purposes of comparisons of effectiveness may be open to question, insofar as his conclusions might be

sustained by further use of his method or by the refinement of technics, they are most significant. The reading of liberal magazines, the enthusiastic participation in student activities, and the personalities of some instructors were the only factors that affected in significant degree the social-mindedness of students.

*A Century of the Universal School*, by WILLIAM C. BAGLEY. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. 85 pages.

The eighth of the Kappa Delta Pi lecture series is based on the lecture delivered by Doctor Bagley at St. Louis, in February, 1936. It presents a concise résumé of the historical development of universal education in its relation to national life not only in America but in Europe and in Asia. Especially since 1900 has universal education spread to new countries and extended its reach upward into adolescence. It is one of the most significant of all social phenomena.

In Chapter III, the author grapples with what he recognizes to be the most serious problem of American education. How "to provide kinds of instruction that will make it socially profitable to keep in school the types of young people who, under a simpler form of social and economic life, would be wage-earners by the age of fourteen, sixteen, or eighteen." This is indeed the challenge of challenges! It is quite possible that the high school may not be able to meet it; in that case it must perish and give way to new forms of education.

The reviewer does not see eye to eye with Doctor Bagley regarding the so-called lowering of standards as such; there is merely tradition to support the assumption that the standards are valid or desirable. He does welcome the author's emphasis on the failure of society and hence of the schools to accomplish all that was hoped from democracy and education by the sponsors of universal education. The recognition of serious problems is the first and fundamental step toward serious effort to solve them.

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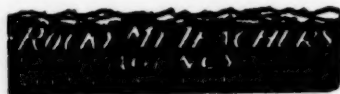
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